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ABSTRACT

This teacher resource manual is designed to guide development of a high school curriculum in Canadian Native languages. It outlines the main features of such a program, clarifies the responsibilities of partners (teachers, administrators, community, native elders) in the implementation of a community-based curriculum, presents pedagogical principles of second language learning and teaching, includes sample teaching activities in Native languages for learners of various abilities, relates pedagogical principles of second language learning to student evaluation, presents a model for planning that incorporates pedagogical principles of second language learning, and identifies issues relating to implementation of a native language program in a school or school jurisdiction. Sample teaching activities in Cree and Blackfoot are included. The manual addresses issues shared by all native language groups and offers concrete suggestions useful to each group. Appended materials include a sample annual letter to community leaders, a sample community survey, prayers, and checklists for language skill development. (MSE)

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ED 365 159

TEACHING NATIVE LANGUAGES IN HIGH SCHOOL

A TEACHER RESOURCE MANUAL

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NATIVE LANGUAGES
IN HIGH SCHOOL

A Teacher Resource Manual

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DEDICATION

It is with deep love, respect and gratitude
for the many hours of
laughter,
hard work
and
learning about life
that I
dedicate
this manual to
its developers –
a group of strong Native women,
proud of their heritage,
carriers of their language,
sharers of their culture,
carers of the young people in their communities –
mothers,
teachers,
role models.

And, I dedicate this manual to the spirit of all aboriginal peoples.

– Olenka Bilash

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INTRODUCTION

The *Teacher Resource Manual* (TRM) is a blueprint for the development of a course of instruction. As such, it must meet the following criteria:

1. be in line with the broader community's concepts of language education, that is, useful to its potential users
2. be available at the beginning of a teaching year so that teachers can use it to plan.

This *Teacher Resource Manual*:

- outlines the main features of a program of studies for Native languages
- clarifies responsibilities of partners in the implementation of a community-based curriculum
- presents pedagogical principles of second language learning and teaching
- includes sample teaching activities in Native languages for learners of various abilities
- relates pedagogical principles of second language learning to evaluation
- presents a model for planning which incorporates pedagogical principles of second language learning
- identifies issues relating to the implementation of a Native language program in a school or school jurisdiction.

This *Teacher Resource Manual* is general enough to address issues shared by all Native language groups and specific enough to offer concrete suggestions for each language group. Since each classroom is unique, the suggested activities are offered as ideas, which may be adapted to suit the varying needs of students.

This *Teacher Resource Manual* will be used by a variety of audiences:

- community members
- parents
- elders
- community leaders
- administrators
- teachers
- paraprofessionals
- consultants.

All these groups have different background knowledge and experience in education, curriculum development and aboriginal culture, and therefore need different kinds of information. To make this document as useful to all readers as possible, the information is presented in a question and answer format.

NOTE: All teaching, planning and liaison suggestions in this manual have been tested in Native language classrooms throughout the province. Teachers from nine school boards in Alberta were involved in on-going in-service activities over a six-month period. They shared classroom experiences and issues of concern, were presented with teaching techniques, practiced them and then took them to their classrooms to adapt them to the needs, interests and language levels of their students. The contents of this *Teacher Resource Manual* were selected after feedback was solicited and classrooms visited. All writing was approved by Native liaison consultants who are also practicing teachers.

During the developmental process, teacher participants noted that the suggested teaching techniques were not ones Native people would traditionally use. However, Native cultural content was easily able to come through. Participants concluded that the teacher's role is to make students aware of the differences between one culture and another, between the culture of the students and that of the mainstream. They suggested that teachers using this document differentiate the teaching technique from the cultural content. If culture is viewed as EVERYDAY LIFE and not just festivities, arts and crafts, and special events, EVERY TECHNIQUE INCLUDED IN THIS *TEACHER RESOURCE MANUAL* HAS THE POTENTIAL FOR CULTURAL RELEVANCE. Thus culture CAN BE integrated throughout each lesson.

PART ONE: INFORMATION ABOUT NATIVE LANGUAGES

1. What Is the Aim of a Program of Studies for Native Languages?

The aim of a program of studies for Native languages is:

- to encourage the learning of Native languages as a means of communication
- to increase cultural awareness of historical and contemporary Native lifestyles
- to make the Native language an integral part of the student's general education.

This orientation promotes a multi-dimensional approach composed of experience/communication, culture, language and community involvement.

2. What Is the Native Education Project?

The provincial Native Education Policy was approved by the Legislative Assembly in March 1987.

The Native Education Project is now implementing this policy. The project helps provincial school boards to offer quality programming to Native students. It provides funding to provincial school boards if there are a significant number of Native students in that jurisdiction.

To achieve the goals of the Native Education Policy, Alberta Education will support the development and delivery of programs and services which meet the following objectives:

- to provide opportunities for Native students to learn and perform to the best of their abilities and to improve attendance and achievement
- to provide opportunities for Native people to help guide and shape the education of their children (through parental and community involvement at all levels in the educational system)
- to provide opportunities, through the use of Alberta approved learning resources, for every student (including non-Native students in Alberta's schools) to study, experience and appreciate various Native cultures and their contributions to the province and to society.

Alberta Education, in partnership with Native communities and school boards, is committed to addressing and taking action on issues voiced by Native people and educators.

3. Where Are Native Languages Taught in Alberta?

High school Native language courses are taught in a variety of school settings, such as band-controlled schools, provincial schools, provincial schools with a Native languages policy, alternative schools, or federal schools. All personnel associated with these settings will have access to the *Teacher Resource Manual*, as well as communities they represent.

The map on the back cover shows the Indian reserves and Metis colonies in Alberta.

4. What Does a Composite of Native Cultures in Alberta Look Like?

Figure 1 (pp. 3-4) gives information from Statistics Canada about the number of aboriginal cultures in Alberta and their distribution.

5. What Is the History of Blackfoot Language Instruction in Alberta?

The missionaries built residential schools to educate Native children. The missionaries began teaching the Native children the English language, a very difficult language to learn, with good intentions. However, their frequent insistence on English immersion is now being severely criticized.

Father Levern, a Roman Catholic priest on the Blood and Peigan reserves, began learning the Blackfoot language as a young missionary and continued his research throughout his lifetime. He developed a Blackfoot writing system to translate English hymns and prayers into Blackfoot and used this system in his catechism lessons. He lived all his life on the Blood and Peigan reserves.

Sister Nancy LeClerc served the same role for the Cree as Father Levern did for the Blackfoot.

In the past, other non-Natives have researched and written Blackfoot material which was never used. In 1974, a linguist from the University of Lethbridge, Dr. Donald Frantz, established a Blackfoot alphabet with the cooperation of a Blackfoot committee. The Blackfoot alphabet is now standardized and is being used by the Blackfoot-speaking tribes in Alberta. Very recently, in 1989, Dr. Frantz and a Native person from the Blood reserve, Norma Russell, produced the first authentic Blackfoot dictionary.

At present, a few Native people have begun writing and teaching the Blackfoot language so that it will not become extinct.

The loss of the Blackfoot language began when the children started day-schooling on the reserves and when integration began in the 1950s. The loss was rapid. In the late 1960s, upon realization of the growing loss of the language and culture, a few Native teachers and elders agreed to teach the Blackfoot language, culture, history and legends in the reserve schools. The elders have been instrumental as resource persons, passing their knowledge, cultural skills and values to the children in the schools.

Alberta Education is encouraging Native language development. The Cree and the

Figure 1. Aboriginal Mother Tongues in Alberta (Statistics Canada 1991)*

Mother Tongue and Sex		Single Response	Multiple Response
Aboriginal	T.	22,065	5,770
	M.	10,840	2,610
	F.	11,230	3,160
Algonquian languages	T.	17,225	4,925
	M.	8,445	2,265
	F.	8,775	2,665
Blackfoot	T.	3,170	655
	M.	1,560	310
	F.	1,610	345
Cree	T.	13,520	4,035
	M.	6,630	1,850
	F.	6,890	2,185
Micmac	T.	5	5
	M.	-	-
	F.	5	-
Ojibway	T.	480	220
	M.	230	100
	F.	250	120
Algonquian languages	T.	40	10
	M.	15	-
	F.	25	10
Athapaskan languages (Dene)	T.	2,015	310
	M.	1,000	105
	F.	1,015	205
Carrier	T.	5	-
	M.	-	5
	F.	5	5
Chilcotin	T.	5	-
	M.	-	-
	F.	-	-
Chipewyan	T.	750	150
	M.	380	50
	F.	375	105
Dogrib	T.	20	-
	M.	5	-
	F.	20	-
Kutchin-Gwich'in (Loucheux)	T.	10	5
	M.	5	-
	F.	5	5

*Statistics Canada – Cat. No. 93-313
The Nation

Mother Tongue and Sex		Single Response	Multiple Response
South Slave	T.	935	95
	M.	460	35
	F.	475	60
Athapaskan languages	T.	290	50
	M.	150	15
	F.	140	35
Haida	T.	–	5
	M.	–	5
	F.	–	–
Iroquoian languages	T.	10	5
	M.	5	5
	F.	5	5
Mohawk	T.	5	5
	M.	5	–
	F.	5	–
Iroquoian languages	T.	–	–
	M.	–	–
	F.	5	–
Kutenai	T.	5	–
	M.	–	–
	F.	–	5
Salish languages	T.	15	10
	M.	–	–
	F.	5	5
Dakota	T.	2,505	445
	M.	1,235	205
	F.	1,270	240
Wakashan languages	T.	10	–
	M.	5	–
	F.	5	5
Amerindian languages	T.	165	45
	M.	80	20
	F.	85	30
Inuktitut	T.	115	25
	M.	60	10
	F.	55	15

Statistics Canada – Cat. No. 93-313
The Nation

Blackfoot-speaking tribes are now using provincially approved programs to teach their language and culture. The picture will be complete when parents begin to teach their Native language in the home.

6. Is There a Standardized Orthography for Native Languages?

The Roman Orthography recommended for instruction of Cree is the Pentland Orthography:

- This style is used in the *Cree Language and Culture Program, ECS-Grade 9. Curricular Program and Guide* (1989).
- This orthography is used for university-level Cree courses in Saskatchewan and Alberta.
- Extensive curriculum materials have been developed using this orthography.
- This style of writing is based on the Cree Syllabics of Standard Orthography.

Overview of the Pentland System

The "Y" dialects of the Plains and Woodland Cree of Alberta use only 14 English letters. Ten consonants are used. These are: p, t, c, k, s, m, n, w, y and h. The "Y" dialects have three short vowels (a, i, o) and four long vowels (a, i, o, e).

"Y" dialects of Cree (Woodland and Plains) follow these principles in spelling:

- Every sound in Cree has its own letter or symbol.
- Every symbol or letter represents only one sound.
- A single sound is written with a single letter.

The pronunciation of most consonants is similar to their English counterparts, with the following exceptions: c, k, p and t.

"C" is pronounced as "ts", or in some areas "ch".

e.g., anohc	now, today
cipay	spirit, ghost

"K" is pronounced as a sound between "g" and "k".

e.g., akim	count
kîsikaw	day

"P" is pronounced as a sound between "p" as in "Peter" and "b" as in "bull".

e.g., apih	sit
sîsîp	duck

"T" is pronounced as a sound between "t" and "d".

e.g., atim	dog
tânsi	How are you?

Short vowels a, i and o are spoken quickly.

"A" is pronounced like "a" in "was".

e.g., awas	go away
apih	sit

"I" is pronounced like "i" in "it".

e.g., iskwew	a woman
itwiw	he/she says

"O" is pronounced like "oo" in "book".

e.g., nîso	two
otin	take (inan.)

Long vowels are much more drawn out. The dash or macron above the vowel indicates that it should be spoken more slowly. This is very important as there are many words with different meanings which are spelled the same, except for the macron.

e.g., niyânan	five
niyanân	we (inclusive)

"Â" is pronounced like "a" in "father".

e.g., nipâh	sleep
taniwâh	Where is . . .?

"Î" is pronounced like "i" in "machine".

e.g., mîciso	eat
kîpit	your tooth

"Ô" is pronounced like "o" in "who".

e.g., ôta	here
pôna	make a fire

"Ê" is pronounced like "e" in "berry".

e.g., êkosi	there, that's it

"Ê" is a sound more common to Plains Cree "Y" dialect than Woodland "Y" dialect. Most "ê" sounds in the Plains "Y" dialect are replaced by "î" in the Woodland "Y" dialect.

Blackfoot Orthography

The Blackfoot alphabet contains 13 symbols: a, h, i, k, m, n, o, p, s, t, w, y and ' (glottal stop). There are some distinct sounds of Blackfoot, but many sounds have close similarity with English sounds.

- The consonants m, n, s, w and y are nearly identical to English sounds.

- Unaspirated sounds lack a puff of air:
  "K" is pronounced like the "k" in "skin".
  e.g., Kínna. Your dad.
  "P" is pronounced like the "p" in "spin".
  e.g., Póósa. It is a cat.
  "T" is pronounced like the "t" in "stop".
  e.g., takáá who

- Guttural Fricative
  The actual tongue position while pronouncing this sound is affected by the preceding vowel.
  e.g., saahkómaapii boy
  áótahkoiinamma an orange
  ipíihkoo(wa) s/he hitchhiked
  áínihkiwa s/he is singing
  noohpíikini my tooth
  nohkówa my son

- Glottal Stop
  The glottal stop is an interruption of the air flow closing the vocal cords. It is indicated by an apostrophe '.
  e.g., sa'áí(wa) duck
  ní'sa my older brother

- Vowels
  "A" is pronounced like the "a" in "father" or like the "u" in "up".
  e.g., apinákosi tomorrow
  "I" is pronounced like the "i" in "bit".
  e.g., Nitáánikkowa . . . My name is . . .
  "O" is pronounced like the "o" in "book".
  e.g., Kóko'sa. S/he is your child.

- Diphthong Variants

ai – as in "paid" before a glottal stop consonant
e.g., Áí'poyiwa. S/he is talking.
ai – as in "said" before long consonants
e.g., Áímmoki'kaawa. S/he is skating.
ai – as in "apple" in other positions
e.g., Áítapoowa . . . S/he goes to . . .
ao – as in "dawn"
e.g., áótahkoiinamma an orange
aii – as in "say"
e.g., náíipistsii cloth

- Length

Vowels at the end of a word are generally voiceless.
e.g., Aisimiwa. S/he is drinking.

All three vowels and all consonants except w, y, h and ' have two lengths: long and short.
ii – sounds like long ē.
e.g., miistsís a tree
aa – maatááki potato
oo – póósa a cat
kk – Nitáánikko . . . My name is . . .
ss – Áíyisstsiiwa. S/he is listening.
mm – Áímmoki'kaawa. S/he is skating.
nn – ónnikii milk
pp – niíppo thirty
tt – Áísttokimaawa. S/he is drumming.

Vowel length is difficult to discern before a glottal stop.

- Stress or Accent

Stress or accent is indicated by underlining or use of the acute accent over the vowel(s).
e.g., Ninaawa or nínaawa. He is a man.
Kitaakitapoo or kitáakitapoo. You will go.

- Grammatical Gender

Gender categories are animate and inanimate (rather than masculine and feminine as in English).
Animate singular:
e.g., pookáa(wa) child

Animate plural:
e.g., pookáíksi — children
Inanimate singular:
e.g., atsikíni — shoe
Inanimate plural:
e.g., atsikíístsi — shoes

- Verb Classification

Verb classifications are typically Algonquian.
Inanimate intransitive: Vii – the stems are inflected to agree only with inanimate gender subjects.
e.g., Níítsanattsiwa. — It appears striking.

Animate intransitive: Vai – the stems are inflected to agree with animate gender subjects.
e.g., Nitsí'tsinssaki. — I charred something.

Transitive inanimate: Vti – the stems are inflected to agree with both a subject and direct object and the object is of inanimate gender.
e.g., Itotáípiihpa. — It was to blame.

Transitive animate: Vta – the stems are inflected to agree with a subject and an inanimate gender direct object.
e.g., Iimái'toyiiwayi. — He believed her.

7. How Can a Generic Teacher Resource Manual Meet the Needs of Speakers of Different Aboriginal Languages?

- Aboriginal people, languages and cultures have much in common in Alberta. All aboriginal students live in similar situations and share traditional values and beliefs, and must live in harmony with the land.

- Similar pedagogical principles apply to the learning and teaching of a second language in a school, regardless of which language it is.

- All communities face similar challenges in adopting a community-based curriculum.

- Teaching techniques can be used in many settings by adapting them to the specific needs and interests of students.

For these reasons it is quite useful to produce a generic teacher resource manual for aboriginal languages. At the same time, the unique differences of languages must always be kept in mind.

PART TWO: COMMUNITY-BASED CURRICULUM – ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

1. What Is a Community-Based Curriculum?

In a community-based curriculum, the stakeholders are clearly identified – teacher, school administrators, students, parents and community leaders (elders, Chief and Council, and the community at large). All partners take responsibility for selecting the content of the program and for making decisions about implementing that content. THE COMMUNITY IS PART OF THE SCHOOL AND THE SCHOOL IS PART OF THE COMMUNITY.

2. Why Is a Community-Based Curriculum Appropriate to the Teaching of Native Languages?

Native people aim at achieving excellence in the education of each member of the tribe. Education for Native people is a total learning experience that embraces the spiritual, mental, physical and cultural development of each person. Education is a vehicle for transmitting knowledge and the underlying values of the culture. Education passes on the Native language, culture and values. To achieve the goal of helping each community member attain excellence, there must be ongoing input and support from the community.

Language mirrors the culture of those who use it. Language is not only a component of the culture but the channel through which all parts of the culture are expressed. Native people believe that the Creator bestowed their language on them, and that their language should be treated and used with the utmost respect. Their language has been the foundation of the culture and society for present and past generations and shall remain so for all generations. The community desires an explicit role in ensuring that the value of its language is transmitted. A community-based curriculum is most likely to uphold these values.

3. What Role Does the Community Play in the Educational Process of a Native Language Program?

The role of the community is one of the primary factors in ensuring the success of the Native language program. A successful Native language program will have:

- community acceptance
- community endorsement
- ongoing community liaison.

4. Which Groups or Individuals Need to Be Consulted on an Ongoing Basis to Support a Solid Native Language Program?

It is necessary to keep all lines of communication open between the school and the following groups:

- Chief and Council
- Parents Advisory Committee (PAC)
- Local School Board Committee (LSBC)
- elders.

5. What Is the Community's Responsibility in the Educational Process of a Native Language Program?

Community acceptance, endorsement and ongoing liaison can only be accomplished through shared responsibility. Community leaders, elders, parents and members at large each play significant roles.

6. What Is the Role of Community Leaders?

Community members must play a leadership role in the Native language program. Their role is to:

- provide general cultural information
- provide cultural information specific to the local community
- provide linguistic information
- make decisions about the orthography to be used
- encourage/ensure the use of the Native language in the community by all of its members
- assist in the development of resources
- help to decide on the content of the elective component of the program
- conduct and provide periodic feedback and evaluation of the program to ensure it is meeting community needs and students are achieving described goals
- guide teachers to knowledgeable resource people (elders, volunteers, parents) and ensure their availability to assist in the development and implementation of the program
- endorse elders who can transmit knowledge from one generation to the next in the areas of herbal medicine, ceremonial knowledge, history and storytelling
- provide community support by raising the status of the language in everyday community activities
- promote the language program within and outside the community.

7. What Role Do Elders Play in a Native Language Program?

Elders have a key role in transmitting knowledge, in all areas of language and culture, and in all Native communities. Elders should be invited into the classroom on a regular basis to share their knowledge, to give their blessings, and to teach students about the role they play. Elders' approval is a form of community sanction.

It is strongly recommended that an elder be brought in to bless the class and Native language program at the beginning of each school year.

8. How Are Elders Contacted?

To access the wisdom of an elder, one must approach him or her in a proper, respectful manner. Use of the telephone is not advised; face to face communication is always most respectful. The following tips may also be helpful:

- Use only the Native language. (If you are unable to do so, provide a translator.)
- Identify yourself, what you are asking for, and what your intentions are: explain that the elder's assistance is being requested for educational purposes, that there is great respect for him or her and the culture, and that the intentions are serious and honourable.
- Offer tobacco or a small monetary gift.
- Discuss the following:
  - the purpose of approaching that particular elder
  - the topic of study
  - the time and location of the proposed encounter based on mutual agreement
  - information about students and classroom (if in class)
  - arrangement of honorarium (if appropriate)
  - transportation to and from school
  - arrangement for a meal (if appropriate).
- Check to see if the elder prefers to talk or work with small groups or the entire class.
- Discuss the elder's involvement in an actual learning activity and content area, if appropriate.
- Inform the elder if the visit precedes or follows a field trip, school ceremony, lecture.
- Indicate clearly the time span of the elder's visit.

9. How Can Students Best Be Prepared for the Elder's Visit?

To ensure a successful visit, students should be prepared in advance of the elder's arrival. They need to know:

- that expected behaviour is to sit still, pay attention, not interrupt
- how to ask and answer questions politely
- that they should know something about the topic beforehand so that they will be more interested in it and want to learn more about it
- the expected allotment of time of the elder's visit
- that they should be able to sit attentively a little longer with each successive visit over the school year.

10. What Is the Role of the School Administrator in a Native Language Program?

The school administrator has several important functions to fulfill, including:

- offering moral support to all members of the program
- assisting in the selection of materials

- providing funds for the acquisition of print, non-print and human learning resources
- offering guidance in language methodology or assisting in accessing whatever guidance is needed or requested by the teacher
- informing teachers of, arranging for, or assisting teachers in finding out about in-service opportunities
- providing ongoing educational leadership
- seeking and maintaining a cooperative relationship with the community
- assisting in finding elders or other resource people
- actively promoting the program in the school by
  - providing a permanent classroom for the subject area
  - verbally and non-verbally making the program visible
- viewing the program as an integral part of studies
- understanding the flexibility of the program and accommodating it
- ensuring that qualified teachers/instructors are hired
- evaluating the program to ensure it is meeting community needs and students are achieving stated goals and objectives.

11. What Is the Role of the Teacher in a Native Language Program?

Teachers in the Native language program have many roles to play. They must be flexible at all times and respond to the real needs of their students. The teacher's roles include:

- friend
- counsellor
- information bank – able to provide definitions, answers, opinions and suggestions on culture, customs and religion
- model of a high level of language (a fluent and accurate speaker of both the Native language and English, well aware of body language), explainer of the differences in dialect, teacher of respect for differences in dialect
- artist, secretary, carpenter, accountant (finding funding sources), planner, manager, advisor, co-communicator, mother (if necessary)
- exemplary role model – imparting values, mores to students (transmitter of culture as a part of the daily routine)
- encourager of affective, cognitive and social development of students
- assistant in evaluation of the program
- initiator of community liaison and provider of accurate information to all stakeholders in the community
- initiator of shared bicultural experiences that provide an enhanced and enriched knowledge base for students
- creator, facilitator and resource person for a variety of activities.

12. How Can a Teacher Stay in Touch with the Community?

Community liaison is considered of utmost importance to the success of the Native language program. Each school should have a PAC (Parents Advisory Committee), PAG (Parents Advisory Group) or LSBC (Local School Board Committee) for the Native language program. Teachers are encouraged to keep parents informed of school programs on a regular basis throughout the school year. A monthly or bi-monthly newsletter might help to meet this end. It could include:

- greetings
- a prayer
- information about past events, themes covered
- information about future events.

This activity could be part of the Cree/Blackfoot 10 program, offering students an opportunity to engage in REAL/AUTHENTIC communication.

An annual letter can be sent to the Chief and Council or settlement leaders informing them of the program and the number of students involved. This letter should be written on a personal level. See Appendix A for a sample letter.

To maintain an ongoing liaison with the community, teachers are encouraged to survey parents, elders (social leaders) and the Chief and Council (political leaders). See Appendix B for a sample survey.

13. What Is the Role of the Students in a Native Language Program?

The students have some major responsibilities in a community-based curriculum. Learners must:

- overcome their shyness and practice communicating
- take responsibility for their own learning
- develop initiative
- develop a willingness to take part
- develop positive attitudes and expectations toward learning and toward the subject matter
- take responsibility for regular attendance (they cannot learn the language if they do not hear it!)
- make active choices in the decision-making process
- assist in the planning process.

14. How Can Teachers and Students Work Together in a Native Language Program?

In terms of daily school life, both teachers and students must understand that the school is a culture which provides rules. These rules must be adhered to and enforced by both

groups. In terms of daily classroom activities, there must be mutual respect at all times.

For special events, students should be consulted as to their interest and willingness to participate. For example, some of the information in the regular newsletter to parents and community groups could be written by students, perhaps even in the Native language. Advanced speakers (or by the end of term, all students) could be expected to draft this section of the newsletter. The teacher could play an editing role. Fluent speakers could participate earlier on by contributing a short passage written in orthography or syllabics.

15. Why Should All Contributors to the Native Language Program Be Acknowledged?

In the oral culture of the Native community the acknowledgement of contributors – human resources – is a part of the **validation** process. Validation is a sensitive area to the Native community and it is important that all individuals, organizations, groups and associations who have contributed to the occurrence of an event are given due credit. Above all, the culture and its ancestors must be acknowledged. Individuals responsible for the initiation, development, administration and conclusion of any project require mention. Elders or other individuals who were consulted for their wisdom merit acknowledgement. All individuals associated with the project as planners, photographers, illustrators, storytellers, typists and so on, should be credited.

16. What Role Do Native Arts and Crafts Have in a High School Program?

The high school program should reflect the values, beliefs and attitudes of the community in which it is taught. Native arts and crafts may vary from community to community depending on the skills of the local population, the teacher's knowledge and abilities, and the availability of community experts in the crafts.

Some possible craft activities include:

- headdress bead project
- tipi – with traditional designs and an explanation of the meaning of the designs
- beadwork – key chains, earrings, necklaces, brooches
- moccassins
- costumes
- making bannock
- making dried meat
- making heart soup
- fish scale art
- moose tufting
- birchbark art
- making replicas/models
- sap-making.

Other cultural activities include:

- using sweetgrass every morning
- showing respect for elders
- gathering sweetgrass
- tanning hides
- learning dances and their meaning
- singing.

17. How Can the Cultural Program Be Funded?

Most of these projects require the purchase of materials. It is often necessary to request funds for such projects in the previous year. If this is not possible, find out if there is a Native arts and crafts fund or a Native education fund. Or, approach the Student Council or Chief and Council for temporary funding. Completed projects might be sold to raise funds for the next year.

The roles and responsibilities described above are summarized in Figure 2 on page 17.

Figure 2. Roles and Responsibilities in a Community-Based Native Language and Culture Program

Community
- Provide cultural and linguistic information
- Guide in the selection of the most receptive and knowledgeable resource people
- Ensure functional use of the language in the home and community
- Provide the school with a mechanism or process for accessing elders, resource people and material resources
- Promote and support the program inside and outside the community with students, community people and elders
- Assist in the evaluation of the program
- Decide which dialect is to be used in the program
Administrator
- Provide educational leadership
- Seek and maintain co-operative working relationship with the community
- Help to find resource people and keep them involved
- Actively promote the program in the school
- View the program as integral part of studies
- Understand the flexibility of the program and accommodate this flexibility
- Ensure qualified teachers/instructors are hired
- Provide in-service and training for teachers to use the program
- Evaluate the program to ensure it is meeting community needs and students are meeting the stated goals and objectives
- Provide continual training for new teachers and administrators on how to use the program
Student
- Develop a positive attitude toward the language and the program
- Be a willing participant in the cultural/linguistic content
- Actively use the Native language in school, at home and in the community
- Actively seek new cultural/linguistic information
- Help teachers to identify elders and resource people from the community
- Initiate learning by asking questions
Teacher
- Be fluent in the Native language and knowledgeable about the Native culture
- Be open and accepting of community input
- Act as a model for students
- Assist administrator in finding resource people and keeping them involved
- Plan and utilize the community, human and material resources
- Select appropriate materials for teaching the program as there are few materials available (it may be necessary to make materials)
- Encourage affective, cognitive and social development of students
- Be flexible enough to provide a creative learning environment and new learning opportunities
- Provide accurate and authentic information
- Assist in the evaluation of the program
- Identify students' learning styles

PART THREE: HISTORY OF SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING AND PEDAGOGICAL PRINCIPLES

1. What Is Language?

LANGUAGE provides a cultural and social framework for the people who speak it. Culture is expressed through language, and therefore the language spoken gives people their view of the world. Language is the tool that people use for perceiving the world; however, it is also the tool they use for negotiating their perceptions with one another. Language enables people to establish an identity, and to maintain relationships with others. A high quality of linguistic proficiency is necessary for full participation in a community.

Language is a key form of communication. Therefore, language learning means learning to communicate. Communication entails:

- grammatical accuracy
- "sociolinguistic competence" or the ability to use language appropriately in different social contexts
- "discourse competence" or the ability to express oneself above the level of the simple sentence
- "strategic competence" or the ability to maintain communication by using gestures or "talking around" an unknown word, or using other ways to compensate for limitations in language skills.

2. How Does Language Develop?

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT is a continuous, spiralling and cumulative process. The learner is always building upon what is already known as he or she seeks to understand and master new language skills and concepts. This learning process involves social, cultural and cognitive skills simultaneously.

Learning a language is also an affective process. Since the learner is motivated by the need to understand and be understood, meaning and comprehension are pre-eminent. Language is best learned in contexts that provide meaning and opportunities to practice and test comprehension. Learning grammar is learning *about* language, not learning how to use the language. LEARNING A LANGUAGE OCCURS PRIMARILY THROUGH USING THE LANGUAGE.

3. What Is the Best Way to Teach a Second Language?

The following brief history of the teaching of second languages provides a framework for current second language methodologies and helps readers to understand which approaches are most applicable to the Native language program.

The history of second language teaching/learning is not a long one. In the early nineteenth century, the learning of "modern" languages was thought of as mental exercise to develop intellectual faculties. Latin and Greek were studied solely as a means of better understanding the literary works written in those languages. The grammar-translation approach, as it was called, advocated language learning exclusively through the study of grammatical structures. Its aim was to develop the skill of transferring knowledge from one language to another, not for practical language use. Consequently, students were usually unable to understand the spoken language or speak the language.

At the end of the nineteenth century, Charles F. Berlitz and Otto Jespersen, among others, tried another approach, called the direct method. Students learned a second language in much the same way as they had acquired their first language. They were bombarded with oral language in the beginning and developed the ability to speak the language by practicing speaking. The greatest drawback of this approach was that grammatical rules were learned inductively, and many of the linguistic structures were memorized incorrectly. This led students to speak the language, which they had not been able to do with previous methods, but they also made a number of errors that they could not correct because they did not have a knowledge of the language structure.

An important change in second language teaching/learning came about with World War II. The warring nations needed a great number of people who could speak the languages of enemies and of allies as well. This demand required the development of a new teaching method that could rapidly create "native-like" speakers. The U.S. Department of Defense funded the development of the "audiolingual" approach, which was based on behavioural psychology (stimulus-response). Language learning became the acquisition of a taxonomy of grammatical structures. Language was learned through the repetition, memorization and reinforcement of rigidly taught grammatical rules, with the ultimate goal being mastery of exact pronunciation. In addition, this approach emphasized careful monitoring of oral skill development (aural comprehension and oral production). Unfortunately, this approach was not as successful in creating bilingual people as had been predicted, since it had not taken into account differences in learning styles. Some students became bored in class and were unable to function in the target language. However, in spite of these two weaknesses, H.H. Stern maintained that the audiolingual approach was the turning point in prompting the need for the development of second language methodology.

In the 1950s, the Centre de Recherche et d'Études pour la Diffusion du Français (CRÉDIF) added to the audiolingual approach by creating the audiovisual approach. Using a filmstrip accompanied by an audiotape, this approach provided an utterance which corresponded to each frame. The CRÉDIF was very successful in France, but the same could not be said for North America. Once again students were bored by the constant repetition of utterances and the teachers' control of oral production.

In 1960, with an enhanced understanding of developmental psychology, a group of educators created the cognitive approach. The aim of this approach was to introduce new structures through schematas which had already been acquired by the students. Advocates of this approach believed that by knowing the grammar rules one was able to use the language. The problem, however, was that teachers tended to indulge in lengthy grammatical explanations, which impeded both learner participation and language acquisition. In spite of its limitations, this approach did give students the opportunity to be more creative with the language.

In the 1970s, it became even more apparent that second language students were unable to express themselves well. They were quite capable of imitating and memorizing the language, but could not use it in context. The Council of Europe took on the challenge to find another means of teaching/learning a second language. The result was the functional-notional approach, based on language use according to six categories of language functions: 1) judgement and evaluation, 2) suasion, 3) argument, 4) rational inquiry and exposition, 5) personal emotions, and 6) emotional relations. The aim of this approach was to transfer these functions to acts of communication. In reality, however, the approach limited language use, since learners were not able to transfer successfully their acquired knowledge. Nevertheless, this period did give rise to the concept of communicative competence.

Through experimenting with these different approaches, educators learned that learners were capable of memorizing grammatical structures and rules and applying them in class, without, however, being able to communicate for their own purposes. This inability to apply one's knowledge of language to its use led to the communicative approach, which aimed at language use in context.

Sandra Savignon used the term "communicative competence" to define the communicative approach. Her 1983 definition described the concept as the negotiation of the meaning of messages between a locuter (speaker) and an interlocuter (listener) in interaction. Canale and Swain added four more concepts to complete the definition: 1) grammatical competence, or the ability to use the linguistic structures of the language; 2) sociolinguistic competence, or the ability to use correctly the appropriate grammatical structures in context; 3) discourse competence, or the ability to combine ideas cohesively and coherently; and, 4) strategic competence, or the use of coping strategies to maintain/sustain communication. However, this approach looked at teaching/learning as social interaction without involving students in their own learning.

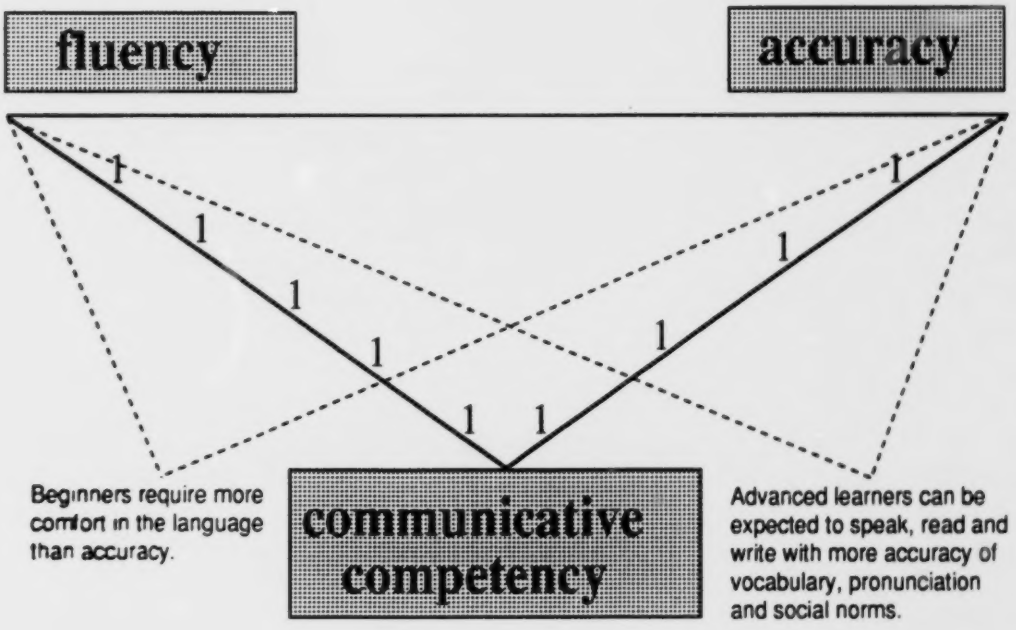
It is this last point which is the seed from which the new program of studies has developed. The addition of what is termed the <u>experiential</u> aspect implies that language teaching/ learning places learners in interaction with their environment (physical, social and/or

psychological). Language is learned through communicating and through participating in a language experience.

4. What Is Communicative Competency?

Communicative competency is a term used to describe a second language learner's ability and comfort in using the second language. It also refers to an approach to teaching second languages. It consists of two component parts – fluency and accuracy. FLUENCY means comfort or ease in using the language in a variety of situations, and ACCURACY refers to the correctness of the language (in terms of vocabulary, morphology, pronunciation, syntax and social appropriateness). Communicative competency represents spontaneous use of the language in many situations with minimal grammatical, lexical, morphological, syntactic and social errors. Learners are expected to feel comfortable with the language before they are expected to use it with perfect accuracy.

The following diagram presents the relationship between fluency, accuracy and communicative competency.


fluency
accuracy
communicative competency
Beginners require more comfort in the language than accuracy.
Advanced learners can be expected to speak, read and write with more accuracy of vocabulary, pronunciation and social norms.

As an example, a spontaneous oral role-playing activity would help to develop fluency or comfort in using the language in different contexts or situations. The second or third draft of a written paragraph would be examined for accuracy – grammatical correctness, spelling and appropriateness of vocabulary and phrases.

A communicative approach has four main principles:

- the attainment of communicative competence as a main goal
- dealing communicatively with forms and errors
- an orientation which integrates listening, speaking, reading and writing
- a focus on meaning, context and authentic language.

In a COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH to second language teaching:

- Language is never presented as vocabulary and grammar, but always in the context of communicating information. Language is USED rather than TAUGHT.
- Instruction methods take into account the spiralling and cumulative nature of language development. Particular aspects of the language such as functions, notions and grammar are introduced and re-introduced, but with increasing complexity.
- The teacher helps the learners to discover the language, instead of "feeding" them the language.
- Language is viewed as the sum of verbal and non-verbal communicative behaviour.
- Learning activities are related to the learners' needs and interests.
- The teacher uses language which is just slightly beyond the comprehension of the learner. The learner's ability to comprehend goes beyond productive abilities.
- Great emphasis is placed on meaningful communication from the learner's point of view. Texts should be authentic. Tasks should be communicative and interactional. Outcomes should be negotiated, not predetermined.
- The learner is the focal point of this approach. Respect for the individual is highly valued.
- Learning is viewed as a self-realization experience in which the learner makes decisions about the process.
- Other learners are seen as a support group. Students interact, help and evaluate themselves and one another.
- The teacher is a facilitator whose primary responsibility is to create optimal learning conditions. The course content should emerge along with the students' input.
- The first language of the learner is viewed as a useful aid when it is necessary for understanding, particularly in the early stages.

5. What Are the Theoretical Principles Underlying Second Language Teaching and Learning?

In addition to an understanding of communicative competency, four other principles may be useful: Stephen Krashen's INPUT-OUTPUT model, the inverted triangle of second language development, FUNCTIONS served by language, and the interrelationship of the language strands.

Krashen's Input-Output Model

Teachers must provide input to language learners at a level that is slightly higher than what

they can reproduce. If the level offered is lower, the language learner is not challenged and tunes out. If the language level is too high, the language learner reaches a frustration level and again tunes out. INPUT involves choice of vocabulary, speed of speech, complexity of phraseology and topics of interest. Since input-output is different for each person, the teacher must be able to adapt to the needs of each student simultaneously.

The Inverted Triangle

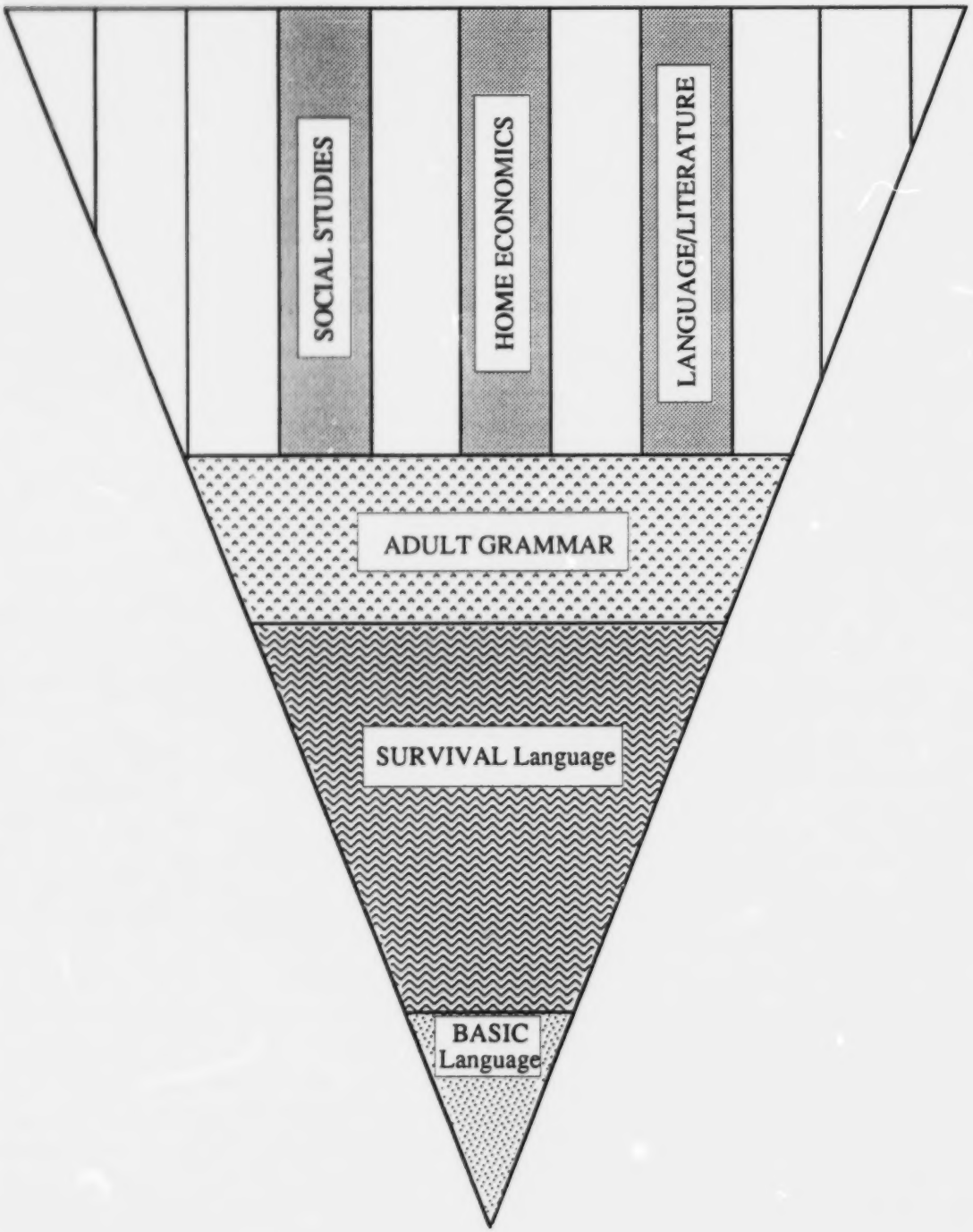
A second language does not usually have the same starting base as the mother tongue. Because it is heard and experienced less often, it needs an intense dose of reinforcement or even immersion to be retained on a long-term basis. It also needs to be well balanced to continue to grow – a balance of fluency and accuracy, of functions, of appropriate vocabulary, of opportunities for quality input and output. The inverted triangle in Figure 3 shows that when development occurs in a balanced way the triangle can remain balanced on its tip. But when the language development is lopsided – too much stress on grammar, on reading or writing, or on input – the triangle flops over.

In this inverted triangle, the base might be considered BASIC language. This consists of 300 to 500 words and phrases, about ten words or phrases in each of 30 to 50 categories. Basic language would include much of what a native-speaking child of two or three knows. Categories include words for food, clothing, family members, buildings, numbers, weather, time, nature, furniture, household objects and transportation, as well as greetings, interactional phrases, questions, description, verbs of motion, verbs of request . . .

Above the base is SURVIVAL language. This development includes the language of everyday culture – the words and phrases necessary to survive in places where the language learner will encounter the language. If language is to be used in the classroom, phrases relating to school rules will become a part of survival language. If language is to be used for job interviews, then phrases relating to interviews will be considered a part of the survival language.

By eight years of age, most native-speaking children have mastered up to 80% of their language abilities. They control ADULT GRAMMAR. They have enough of a basis in the language to continue to learn abstract concepts through it. The development of adult grammar among second language speakers takes many years to develop. It is unreasonable to expect students to be able to perform activities at this level without adequate exposure to and experience with the language. For example, we should not ask grade 12 students who have been studying a language for three to six years to do the tasks we would ask a native-speaking child who is in grade 4. The grade 4 child has been practicing his language for eight or nine years.

Figure 3. Second Language Learning – Prerequisites



As we grow older, we accumulate a general vocabulary that allows us to communicate with various professionals and to understand what is happening in many fields. For example, we can listen and generally understand most news broadcasts. We also develop a vocabulary which reflects our special interests. If we become pilots, we develop vocabulary relating to aeronautical engineering and physics. If we become interior decorators, we develop vocabulary relating to art, form, colour and design. If we become mothers, we develop vocabulary relating to child carrying and child rearing. If we become hunters, we develop vocabulary special to that activity.

The activities in this *Teacher Resource Manual* are designed to meet the needs of students in all categories of language development. It is the teacher's responsibility to assess the students' level of language learning and select activities appropriate to that level.

Functions Served by Language

Students need opportunities to use different functions of language. Michael Halliday identified seven functions of language:

• personal	about me	"I live on a reserve."
• interactional	interacting with others	"I'm fine. How are you?"
• instrumental	expressing needs and wants	"I'm hungry."
• heuristic	wondering, questioning	"Who is the Creator?"
• regulatory	regulating others	"Sit down and get to work."
• representational	stating facts	"The chair is green."
• imaginative	using imagination	"Once upon a time . . ."

D. Andrew Wilkins identified the following six types of language functions:

- judgement and evaluation (approving, disapproving, blaming . . .)
- suasion (inducement, compulsion, prediction, warning, menacing, threatening, suggesting, advising . . .)
- argument (informing, asserting, denying, agreeing . . .)
- rational inquiry and exposition (drawing conclusions, making conditions, comparing and contrasting, defining, explaining reasons and purposes, conjecturing, verifying . . .)
- personal emotions (loving, hating, liking, disliking, despising . . .)
- emotional relations (greeting, expressing sympathy or gratitude, flattering, cursing).

Interrelationship of the Language Strands

There should be opportunities to use all of the language strands:

- listening
- speaking
- reading
- writing.

The activities which are done orally, through listening and speaking, can also be done in reading and writing as the students' comfort with the written form of the language expands.

6. What Are Examples of Communicative Activities?

"Variety is the spice of life." Students want to participate in activities which allow them to use all of the functions of language. Sometimes learners want to talk about themselves. Sometimes they want to talk about others. They wish to initiate conversation and respond to conversation initiated by others. They wish to ask questions and understand answers. They wish to know more about their past and wonder about their future. They wish to create simulations and use imaginative language.

A very effective way of ensuring that all functions are used is to encourage group work. However, students must understand that they are expected to use the second language in the group situation.

Another effective strategy for varying experience with language functions is to ask students to engage in communicative role-playing activities. These activities allow students to use language in a variety of situations and in creative ways. The following examples are derived from the functional-notional approach. Students are requested to make up and present skits using the information provided. (Be sure they are presented in the Native language!)

1. Daughter introduces a new friend to her mother.
2. A stranger asks you for directions to the _____ on the reserve.
3. A mother expresses her appreciation for something a daughter did for her.
4. A mother tells a daughter about what a good decision she has made.
5. Younger brother borrows something from an older brother, denies it and blames another brother for it.

Balance is the key to a successful program. Students should have opportunities to engage in listening, speaking, reading and writing activities on an ongoing basis. In one lesson students might be asked to listen for specific details in what is said to them; read instructions, signs and notices on public display; and, respond to questions without preparation in advance.

In another lesson, students might be asked to extract specific information from a brochure, announcement, instructions or requests; conduct a short interview with a partner; and, listen to a story to extract the temperament of a character.

In another lesson, activities might include writing a letter; listening to a news broadcast on a Native radio station and responding to questions about it; making up a skit with a partner to

show sympathy for someone; and, reading a map for information.

Another lesson might include: identifying important themes, including attitudes, ideas, opinions and emotions, as expressed in extended monologues and conversations between two or more people; conveying information in an unrehearsed monologue; making a telephone call in the language; and, writing a 100-word account in response to a Cree (Blackfoot/Sarcee/Chipewyan) cue or visual aid.

7. How Can a Teacher Best Facilitate the Language Growth of Beginners?

Second language learners tend to progress through several initial stages – a comprehension stage, an early speech stage and an emergent speech stage – before they can successfully interact with native speakers. During these stages their responses are more limited. Teachers who acknowledge these stages can make the best use of class time and help nudge the students along.

Ways of getting students to respond at the COMPREHENSION STAGE include:
- responding with an action by doing something (total physical response)
- responding with "yes" or "no" answers
- responding using a person's name
- responding using one word
- pointing to an item or picture
- using gestures
- responding using a simple sentence.

Ways of getting students to respond at the EARLY SPEECH STAGE include:
- responding with "yes" or "no" answers
- responding using one word
- responding with lists of words
- responding using a two-word string, short phrase or simple sentence.

Ways of getting students to respond at the EMERGENT SPEECH STAGE include:
- responding with three-word answers and short phrases
- responding using longer phrases
- responding with complete sentences, where appropriate
- using dialogue, extended discourse or discussion
- narrating or retelling.

8. How Does the Teacher Decide Which Vocabulary Should Be Taught in the School?

Because each community has its own dialect, it is important to become aware of the local terminology. Older members of the community who still speak the language fluently or

elders specially selected for this purpose are ideal sources of such information.

While the community can be of assistance in selecting key vocabulary, the teacher must make the final decision as to which words will be used in the classroom. The teacher must feel comfortable with the language spoken in his or her classroom. These questions may help the teacher identify appropriate guidelines.

- What do you feel comfortable with?
- What does the community approve of? (e.g., toilet bowl, toilet paper . . .)
- What will you do with a swear word?
- Would students use certain words in front of their parents?
- What will you do if the parents/community use the less-desired term?

9. How Does the Teacher Play the Role of Language Guide?

In addition to being an exemplary model in the accurate use of the language, the teacher is expected to use the language as much as possible. Students will not have an opportunity to learn without hearing the language. They will not learn to understand if they are not given the opportunity to listen. The teacher must set standards and expectations for language behaviour in the classroom.

Teachers should encourage:

- phrases that express complete thoughts NOT isolated vocabulary words
- language in context (relating to the classroom and students' immediate environment)
- content that moves from the familiar to the unfamiliar
- a positive, caring and healthy atmosphere
- students interacting with one another
- students selecting some of the teaching themes and techniques to be used.

10. How Will We Know if Students Are Competent in the Language?

Teachers and community will know that students communicate COMPETENTLY when:

- They can operate in a variety of situations and contexts which are culturally defined.
- They are responsive to the social and cultural constraints and norms involved in discourse.
- Their speech is accurate in terms of articulation and meaning.
- Their speech performs functions successfully.

11. How Do We Differentiate Teaching the Language and Teaching the Student?

Teaching the whole person involves:

- the "mind," which involves intellectual development and the processes of "thinking to think" or "learning to learn"

- the "body," which involves physical development
- the "spirit," which involves emotional development: love and caring; motivation and will; and, self-esteem, self-identity and group identity.

A language program should teach the whole person through the medium of the language.

12. How Are the Needs of All Students Dealt with in the Classroom?

There are many ENTRY POINTS in a linguistic and cultural program. The age, interests and language competency of each student must be considered, and the program must be based on the abilities of the students. It is the **teacher's responsibility** to meet the needs of all learners. Cooperative learning can be very beneficial in this regard. Research has shown there are enormous advantages in putting students of varying abilities together in groups.

Teachers must accommodate the many learning modes of students. Activities should reflect the needs of visual learners – to see new information as it is presented to them – in print, in charts, in pictures; audio learners – to hear the information as it is presented to them and not just see it; kinesthetic learners – to be moving while they are learning; and, tactile learners – to touch things in order to process new information. The use of manipulatives, playing games which allow movement, and the use of a blackboard and illustrations are all important teaching strategies if all learners are to be engaged in each lesson.

All students need to learn strategies that will enable them to learn the language better. For example, making associations will help students remember words; taking a risk and overcoming shyness will help them progress in language development; trying to use phrases with Native speakers in the community will help them develop their self-esteem and learn the language; guessing at the meaning of a word or throwing in an English word is better than putting forth no effort at all; asking for the help of a peer is a good way of getting a task done; being asked for assistance creates a responsibility; closing one's eyes and imagining a word can help you remember it.

The research on second language acquisition reports that effective/successful second language learners use these strategies:

- cognitive strategies – learners work with and manipulate task materials themselves, working toward task completion
- socio-affective strategies – learners interact with the teacher or other learners to solve a problem or exercise some affective control over their own learning behaviours
- metacognitive or self-regulatory strategies – becoming aware of their own thinking and learning, and planning, monitoring and evaluating their own learning endeavours.

Cognitive Learning Strategies	- analyzing language into its parts - looking for patterns in the language - trying to classify the language - structured review - asking questions - repeating (imitating) - matching - memorizing - making associations - visualizing/imagery - applying knowledge from another language - deductive reasoning - working with native speakers - cooperating with peers - becoming culturally aware - compensation strategies – guessing the meaning
Socio-affective Learning Strategies	- losing shyness - trying to speak to a native speaker - developing a positive attitude about using the language - taking risks - cooperating with teacher and peers - asking questions about one's learning - using grids to improve learning - asking for help with one's learning - developing self-confidence - developing perseverance - increasing interaction - increasing empathy for understanding
Metacognitive Learning Strategies	- paying attention - using selective strategies - organizing one's learning - evaluating one's own progress - self-monitoring to focus, plan and evaluate one's own progress

13. Are There Teaching Strategies That Facilitate the Learning of Native Languages?

Studies have not yet been done on specific teaching strategies for Native languages. However, other research suggests that in high school teaching and learning second

languages can be more effective when students learn strategies. A reflective journal (students' written feedback about HOW they are going about learning a second language) can give teachers valuable information about which strategies students are using. With this knowledge, the teacher can more easily help students acquire additional learning strategies that are effective in this subject area, and often transferable to other subject areas.

Teachers should ask students about HOW they:

- improve pronunciation
- remember vocabulary or grammatical points
- feel confident enough to talk
- get ready to talk in the Native language
- study for a test
- deal with not understanding something orally
- deal with not understanding something in written form.

14. What Is Transfer and How Will It Help Students Learn the Native Language?

It is important to take advantage of what students already know about language when teaching a second language. If they know how to read in one language, they will understand that there is a sound-symbol system associated with writing. Students are then encouraged to break the new code through a discovery approach.

Recent research also suggests that not every type of learning is transferred. It is therefore useful to review explicitly the reasons for doing an activity or the strategies required for the completion of an activity.

PART FOUR: ACTIVITIES AND RESOURCES FOR THE NATIVE LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

Note: The following activities and resources have all been tried successfully in several high school classrooms throughout the province during the preparation of this *Teacher Resource Manual*.

1. What Are Learning and Teaching Resources?

Learning Resources

Student learning resources are print or non-print instructional materials used by students during the implementation of provincial Programs of Study, such as books, films, videotapes, slides, computer programs, videodiscs or manipulatives.

- **Basic learning resources** are those student learning resources authorized by Alberta Education as the most appropriate for addressing the majority of learner expectations of course(s), substantial components of course(s), or the most appropriate for meeting general learner expectations across two or more grade levels, subject areas, or programs as outlined in provincial Programs of Study. These may include any resource format, such as print, computer software, manipulatives or video.

- **Support learning resources** are those student learning resources authorized by Alberta Education to assist in addressing some of the learner expectations of course(s) or components of course(s); or assist in meeting the learner expectations across two or more grade levels, subject areas, or programs as outlined in the provincial Programs of Study.

Teaching Resources

Teaching resources are print or non-print resources, containing pedagogical suggestions, used by such groups as teachers, administrators, parents and school/community groups in implementing provincial Programs of Study and educational initiatives (examples include teacher resource manuals, teacher guides to commercial texts, monographs, learning facilitator manuals, implementation kits, ACCESS NETWORK materials, newsletters, parent information booklets, examination packages, computer forums, in-service materials, administrator information).

- **Authorized teaching resources** are those teaching resources produced externally to Alberta Education, for example, by publishers, that have been reviewed by Alberta Education, found to meet the criteria of review and to be the best available resources to support the implementation of Programs of Study and courses, and the attainment of the goals of education; they have been authorized by the Minister. Teaching resources produced as service documents by Alberta Education, such as teacher resource manuals (TRMs), diagnostic programs and monographs, are authorized by definition.

Resource Persons

In the aboriginal language and culture programs, **people** are a very important resource. Therefore, resource people should be used extensively, but always with the prior approval of the community.

Because of the variation in dialects and cultures in the aboriginal language groups, it is difficult to provide a standard set of learning resources for these programs. Community members should be involved in identifying and/or developing learning resources that they feel are appropriate, using the following guidelines:

- Resources should respectfully portray the culture.
- Resources should authentically represent various aspects of the culture.
- Resources should represent aboriginal values and belief systems.
- The aboriginal language should be authentic, not a translation of ideas, themes or sentences from English.
- The language used should be the community language.
- The content should accommodate the experiences, interests and lifestyle of the community and the individual students.

2. How Can a Teacher Use Gestures to Explain Instructions?

Teachers can develop a comfortable routine with students if they acquire a gesture code. This code signals to students what they are expected to do. For example:

- repeat (teacher motions hands as if to say "come with me")
- a full sentence (teacher pulls hands apart as if to stretch something)
- good/right answer (thumbs up)
- repeat again (teacher motions with hands)
- this row or this group (teacher uses hand to define a group – using a circular motion to include select students, to point to a row . . .)
- one person will respond (teacher holds finger to mouth to indicate that no one is to reply and then points to one student to respond)
- listen carefully (teacher tugs on earlobe or cups hand around ear)
- do not speak (teacher holds finger to mouth as if to say "sh-sh")
- look carefully (teacher holds finger to eyes).

3. How Can a Teacher Use Pictures and What Are Some Good Sources?

Pictures have many uses in the Native language classroom:

- cultural information
- aesthetics
- flash cards
- gameboards

- telling stories
- displays which can be referred to in teaching
- scrapbooks
- dictionaries
- enlargements
- testing
- student activity such as drawing/colouring
- dialogues
- teaching emotions/animals/themes
- making and playing games
- big books
- labels – practice writing.

Picture sources include:

- cut-outs
- tracings from colouring books
- drawings by teacher, family members
- magazines (*Western Horseman, Better Homes and Gardens, Native News Network, National Geographic*)
- travel brochures or posters (*Project Wildlife* from Alberta Fish and Wildlife)
- kits in any language
- discarded textbooks from schools
- materials from corporations
- AADAC
- Career Week materials
- family photographs
- catalogues – furniture, clothes, Avon
- grocery labels
- grocery store flyers
- other flyers.

4. What Is Biographical Bingo?

Biographical Bingo is a simple activity that will maximize student participation and allow for personalizing language.

Distribute a sheet of incomplete statements (see below) and ask students to circulate around the class to find the names of people who have the traits described on the sheet. Remind students that they must ask their peers a question about themselves to practice the language.

You could make this into a competition by awarding a prize to the student who completes the chart first.

1. _____ knows how to cut up dried meat.
2. _____ has been to the Northwest Territories.
3. _____ plays Bingo.
4. _____ teaches a Native language.
5. _____ is very eager to learn Blackfoot sign language.
6. _____ is an avid supporter of Indian Days.
7. _____ has been to Lac St. Anne.
8. _____ wears glasses.
9. _____ is not female.
10. _____ knows how to skin an animal.
11. _____ drinks at least eight cups of coffee a day.
12. _____ is wearing red underwear.

A Biographical Bingo can be composed to meet the needs of beginner, intermediate and advanced students. Each game can be made easier or simpler by:

- controlling the number of sentences
- requiring answers to be "yes" or "no," full sentences, lists, paragraphs.

Examples:

Beginner: This person is wearing black socks.
This person likes to eat _____.
This person likes to _____ (verb).
This person has brown eyes.

Intermediate: This person has been to Toronto.
This person can tell a joke.
This person can name five _____ (colours, body parts, etc.).
This person did something humourous/sad/physical on the weekend.
This person celebrated a special event this month.

Advanced: Students compose their own Biographical Bingos for the entire class.

5. What Is Total Physical Response (TPR)?

Total Physical Response (TPR) is a technique which invites language learners to learn words through movement of their whole body. Little routines can be taught that invite student participation.

For example:	Stand up.	Stand up.
	Raise your left hand	Raise your left hand.
	Lower your left hand.	Lower your left hand.
	Sit down.	Turn around.
		Raise your left hand.
		Lower your left hand.
		Sit down.

PROCEDURE:

Teacher	**Students**
Models/demonstrates/talks	Act/repeat
Asks students without actions	Act/repeat
Asks students individually	Act/repeat individually
Invites one student to the front to direct	Listen
Observes while one student directs activity	Act/repeat appropriately

6. What Are Rhythm Poems?

Second language learners need to repeat sounds, words and phrases in the second language, just as they did when they were infants learning their first language. While second language learners recognize the value of some repetition, they also balk at the idea of too much rote learning and mindless drill. A rhythm poem is designed to keep motivation high while at the same time allowing for drill and repetition.

The procedure for the rhythm poem activity is to accompany the leader by keeping the rhythm and echoing.

Use the following poem to a "clap your hands – slap your thighs" beat:

Snowflakes	A
fluffy snowflakes	B
snowflakes dancing	C
snowflakes prancing	D
snowflakes whirling	E
snowflakes twirling	F
Snowflakes	A

Rhythm poems:

- are a source of vocabulary that the teacher considers important for the student to learn
- help learners master the rhythm of the language
- are chanted together so no individual feels threatened
- are an enjoyable form of repetition

- can be used for story models – students create their own and lead the class in the chant
- (because of movement) activate endorphins that help learning
- can be chanted by learners of all ages and ability levels
- can use simple or complex sentence structure, as determined by teacher
- create a strong sense of GROUP
- give students a common experience
- act as a fitness break at a restless time
- can be used for 2-3 minutes to change the pace of a lesson
- can be chanted when only a few minutes of class time are left
- are very enjoyable for all (or most).

Rules for composing rhythm poems:

- 6-12 lines maximum
- first line and last line the same
- use consistent patterns, such as noun-adjective OR adjective-noun, but not both within one poem.

Some line patterns are:

A-B-C-D-E-A	flowers
	tulips
	roses
	daffodils
	geraniums
	flowers
A-B-C-C-B-A	eyes
	ears
	nose
	nose
	ears
	eyes
A-B-C-D-E-BCDE-A	winter
	scarf
	mittens
	toque
	moccasins
	scarf, mittens, toque, moccasins
	winter

7. How Can Riddles Be Used in the Native Language Program?

Riddles provide an excellent way to develop oral language skills. For beginners, it is surprising how few words are needed to make associations for guessing games. Intermediate level students enjoy the rhyme and metaphorical thinking of cultural riddles. Older students appreciate jokes, although a fairly advanced level of language is required for this.

Jokes and riddles encourage participation and help students see Native language learning as fun. Allow students the opportunity to create their own jokes. Insist that students practice clear and concise speech when telling other students the joke. The highlight of riddles and joke telling is the sense of fulfillment students experience when they GET the joke. As Georges Terroux wrote, one of life's most cherished moments is the first time one understands a joke in a foreign language.

A riddle can be composed according to the abilities of the target audience.

Examples in Cree:

This is an animal.	Pisiskiw awa.
It is usually white.	Osam piko wâpiskisiw.
It has long ears.	Kinoywa ohtawakaya awa.
It hops.	Papâm kwaskôtiw awa.
It eats carrots.	Wihkistew oskâtâskwa awa.
This is a herbivore.	Nihtah mîciw nîpiya awa.
It changes colour according to its surroundings.	Mîskwac nâkosiw kâpipohk ekwa kânipihk.
It is prey to carnivores living in the woods.	Nawac kâ misikitiyit pisiskôwa kâkî nipahik.
Its foot is sometimes considered good luck.	Osit âskaw takihteyew mîyo payowin.

8. What Are Language and Concept Development Stories?

At various stages, beginners need to be exposed to selected vocabulary that is frequently used. To reinforce and explain such terms, teachers can use Language and Concept Development Stories (LCDS). Such stories use illustrations and simple, often repetitive lines to illustrate the meaning of concrete and/or more abstract concepts.

Language and Concept Development Stories should:

- use high interest, low-vocabulary texts
- include dialogue, humourous endings, action
- deal with community events, town activities, survival information (how to get to . . .)
- be REAL.

Sample LCDS patterns:

A. This is (name).
S/he is wearing a (colour) (clothing).
S/he is wearing a (colour) (clothing).
S/he is wearing a (colour) (clothing).
S/he is wearing a (colour) (clothing).
S/he is wearing a (colour) (clothing).
S/he is wearing a (colour) (clothing).
S/he is wearing a (colour) (clothing).
S/he is wearing a (colour) (clothing).
S/he is going to (place where the clothing would be seen – church, party, park, school).

B. Hi! I'm (name).
I have two eyes.
I have a nose.
I have a mouth.
I have two ears.
I have two hands/arms.
I have two legs/feet.
I have a belly button, stomach.

C. I like to eat (food).
I like to eat (food).
I like to eat (food).
I like to eat (food).
I like to eat (food).
I like to eat (food).
I like to eat (food).
I like to eat (food).
I like to eat (food).
I like to eat (food).
What do you like to eat?

D. I like to (verb).
I like to (verb).
I like to (verb).
I like to (verb).
I like to (verb).
I like to (verb).
I like to (verb).

I like to (verb).
I like to (verb).
What do you like to do?

E. I like to (hobby).
I like to (hobby).
I like to (hobby).
I like to (hobby).
I like to (hobby).
I like to (hobby).
I like to (hobby).
I like to (hobby).
I like to (hobby).
I like to (hobby).
I like to (hobby).
What hobby do you like?

F. **Responsibilities**
(Name) wants to (verb), but s/he must (verb).
(Mom) wants to (verb), but she must (verb).
(Dad) wants to (verb), but he must (verb).
(Brother) wants to (verb), but he must (verb).
(Sister) wants to (verb), but she must (verb).
(Grandmother) wants to (verb), but she must (verb).
(Grandfather) wants to (verb), but he must (verb).
(Name) wants to (verb), but s/he must (verb).
What MUST you do?

9. What Are Cryptic Messages (Hangman)?

As the name suggests, the cryptic message technique is designed to help students decode a message. It also invites students to explain to the teacher certain rules of language and allows the teacher to get closer to the students. The teacher can compose cryptograms that apply to individual students and current activities.

Example:

Good morning! It is a lovely day	G_ _d m_rnin_! I_ _s a _ovely da_ f_r
for our track meet. Who is participating?	_ _r tr_ck m_ _t. Wh_ _s p_rt_c_p_t_ng?

Developing consciousness of patterns

Letters: _ood mornin_! Today we are _oin_ to have _uests. Mrs. _rey will be your substitute. I will return tomorrow. Please help Mrs. _rey _et all of the thin_s she needs. The _lue for the art project is behind the _arba_e can.

Letter combinations or syllables (e.g., "to"): This is _ _mmy. _ _day is _ _mmy's birthday. He invited _ _d, _ _ny and Don. They will build a _ _wer with blocks, _ _ss rings, spin _ _ps and _ _boggan.

Review of proverbs, book titles, dialogues . . .

Students will soon want to compose their own cryptograms for the class, using proverbs, phrases out of songs, book titles, names of characters in stories, and so on. As students become more comfortable with the written form of language all of the letters can be left blank.

Example in Cree:

Tântâhto tipahikan iwi kîwîyin wâpâhki?
(What time are you going home tomorrow?)
Nimîwehten kawîcatoskimitân anohc!
(I am glad to work with you today!)
Tansi kîya?
(How are you?)
Mîyo kîsikâw anohc.
(It is a nice day today.)
Mistahi nimôcikitanân.
(We have a lot of fun.)
Nimîwehten iwaparntan!
(I am glad to see you!)
Kawih, mîyotakosinîyin wâpahkih!
(I hope you get home safely tomorrow!)

10. How Can Songs Be Used in the Native Language Program?

Songs are an important resource because they:

- are a source of rich vocabulary
- help learners to master the rhythm of the language
- are sung together so no individual feels threatened
- are an enjoyable form of repetition
- relay important cultural information
- can sometimes be used for story models.

11. What Are Story Models?

Story models are stories, songs, poems or phrases whose basic structure can be maintained while the component parts are changed. To illustrate this, sing "Mary wore a red dress" (to the tune of "Mary Had a Little Lamb"). After the first verse, continue inventing verses using the names of the class members and the colour of clothing each is wearing.

Example:

_____ wore a _____ _____,
_____ _____, _____ _____.
_____ wore a _____ _____,
all day long.

Josephine wore a navy skirt,
navy skirt, navy skirt.
Josephine wore a navy skirt,
all day long.

Wendy wore a white sweater,
white sweater, white sweater.
Wendy wore a white sweater,
all day long.

12. How Can Grouping Games Be Used in the Native Language Program?

Students can often accomplish much more when they work in groups. Groups can be created:

- randomly
- in alphabetical order
- by ability level (assigned by teacher)
- by numbering off
- by proximity (seating)
- or by using grouping games.

Grouping games offer students an opportunity to mingle. Each grouping game has two parts – a game for forming the group (pair, trio, foursome, etc.) and a task to be completed once the group has been formed. Together the two parts should emphasize BOTH fluency and accuracy. Generally speaking, the grouping game stresses ACCURACY, while the task performed after the group is formed stresses FLUENCY.

Grouping games are excellent for:

- encouraging movement (i.e., creating variety in the classroom)
- efficiently preparing students for group activity
- reviewing comprehension (reading and language)
- testing knowledge of key concepts
- motivating students
- practicing grammar forms
- getting students to talk to one another.

There are many types of grouping games. They can be used with beginner, intermediate and advanced students. While there are more possibilities for students who can read, pictures can also be used in some games. The following pages provide examples of grouping games using:

- associations
- antonyms
- advice
- definitions
- synonyms
- rhyming words
- split sentences
- changing tenses
- questions and answers
- theme charts.

Once students are in groups they may be asked to:

- make up a dialogue
- dramatize a short story
- make up a puppet play
- play a game
- write a joint story
- make up a story using all of a list of phrases
- have a conversation and use each of a list of phrases while conversing
- act out phrases in the present tense for another group (charades)
- offer advice to solve a problem
- think of other situations that require the same advice
- orally tell a story about a picture (or pictures)
- sing a song
- dramatize a situation with three people in a restaurant
- dramatize a child buying a pair of pants that are too small, too large, too short, too long, too tight, just right
- make up a television commercial with puppets

- answer questions about a story (in writing)
- make up definitions
- compose a sentence
- change the verb tense of a sentence
- compose a list of antonyms
- compose a list of synonyms
- compose a list of rhyming words
- make up a sentence using each of a list of words
- find a synonym or antonym for each of a list of words
- elaborate on each of a list of phrases
- identify ten other words in a gender
- compose several questions and answers that could be used for another grouping game
- change the tense of a question and see that the answer agrees
- complete a word sheet, gameboard or word game sheet
- do role-playing.

Each grouping game consists of a perfect number of card sets needed by the group. If there are 12 students you may have six sets of two or three sets of four or four sets of three. If there are 17 students, you may have five sets of three and one pair, three sets of four and two trios or three sets of five and one pair. Every class member has one card on which a word, phrase, question or definition is written. Each card must be read and matched (through a definition, answer, sentence completion or association).

Associations

Students are asked to draw a card and circulate among other students asking them to read/ restate the word or phrase on their card. If the words are in any way associated, students link together to form a group. This works best for forming small groups (pairs or trios). It is useful to inform the students of the categories. For example, tell students that one card will state the name of a country and the other card will identify something or someone associated with that country.

There are often many possible associations so it may take a process of elimination for participants to discover other group members. This only adds to the enjoyment and challenge of the game.

Once students have formed their group, you may ask them to do something as a group – make up a dialogue, dramatize a short story, compose a story model, make up a puppet play, answer questions in writing about a story . . .

Example in Blackfoot:

aisokinaki (doctor)	kitaisokinaki (you are a doctor)
ayosi (cook)	kitoyosi (you are cooking)
iiyinnakiikoan (policeman)	kitayinakii (you are catching/policing)
aisksinimaatsotohki (teacher)	kitaisksinimatsistohki (you are teaching)
ainsima (farmer)	kitainsimawa (you are farming)
aisinaki (secretary)	kitaisinaki (you are writing)
aistaki (carpenter)	kitaistaki (you are hammering)
aoksihpanihkiotaki (painter)	kitoksihpanihkiotaki (you are painting)
aihkiita (baker)	kitaihiita (you are baking)
aisokinakiaki (nurse)	kitaisokinakiaki (you are a nurse)
awahtsakii (fireman)	kitawahtsakii (you are a fireman)
natoyapikowaan (priest)	kitawatsiimoihk (you are praying)
aohsokoiska (road builder)	kitaohsokoiska (you are a road builder)

WHEN YOU HAVE FOUND YOUR PARTNER, prepare a skit about the profession in your pair.

Antonyms

Students are asked to draw a card and circulate among other students asking them if their card is the opposite. Once students have formed a pair or trio, they may be asked to identify several antonyms, play a game, write a joint story, make up some definitions . . . The possibilities are endless.

Example in Cree:

âstam (come)	awas (go)
eha/ihi (yes)	namoya (no)
mâtôw (cry)	pâhpiw (laugh)
sîhkaciw (skinny)	wînow (fat)
cimisisiw (short)	kinosiw (tall)
kisikâw (day)	tipiskâw (night)
mistahi (big)	ap'sis (little)
pâstew (dry)	sâpopew (wet)
miywâsin (good)	mâyâtan (bad)
anohc (today)	otâkosihk (yesterday)
wâpiskâw (white)	kaskitewâw (black)
wîpahtan (dirty)	kanâtan (clean)
tâhkâw (cold)	kisitew (hot)

WHEN YOU HAVE FOUND YOUR PARTNER, make two sentences with these words.

Example in Blackfoot:

ksiskanaotonnisi (morning)	ao'tokosi (evening)
sikisnattsi (black)	ksikksinattsi (white)
saohkomaapii (boy)	aakiikoan (girl)
iiksstoyii (it's cold)	iiksiksistoyi (it's hot)
omahkinaawa (old man)	kipitaaki (old lady)
omahkapiiyi (fat)	iipiksini (skinny)
niipoaot (stand up)	apiit (sit down)
aistoot (come here)	miistapoot (go away)
piit (come in)	saaksit (go out)
ooyit (eat)	minattsoyit (don't eat)
poosa (cat)	imitaa (dog)
aohpotawa (it's snowing)	aisootawa (it's raining)
aa (yes)	sa (no)

WHEN YOU HAVE FOUND YOUR PARTNER, make up five actions for verbs you already know. These actions will be presented to the rest of the class in the form of charades.

Advice

Students are asked to draw a card and circulate among other students to match a statement about a situation or event with advice that applies to the situation or event. When the phrases match, students form a pair.

Example in Cree:

Ninistosin./Ninohtekwasin. (I am tired./I am sleepy.)	Nitawi kawisimo. (Go to bed.)
Niteyistikwanân. (I have a headache.)	Otina peyak misiwipayicikanis. (Take one aspirin.)
Ni nohtî wapamaw kihtehaya. (I want to see an elder.)	Itohtatamâw kistimawa. (Bring tobacco.)
Ninohtîpayin mîciwin. (I ran out of groceries.)	Otenahk itohte. (Go to town.)
Kahkiyaw nitayiwinisa wîpâwa. (All my clothes are dirty.)	Nitawi kisîpekinike. (Go and wash clothes.)
Ninôhtîpayin wiyas. (I don't have enough meat.)	Nitawi mâcî. (Go and hunt.)
Ninohtîpayan sônyâs. (I ran out of money.)	Na! Kawihitin! (Here, I'll lend you some.)
Nikawacin. (I am cold.)	Pôna. (Make a fire.)

Ni nohtîkatan. (I am hungry.)	Mîciso. (Eat.)
Namoya kipihâhtin. (I can't hear you.)	Kisewi. (Speak louder.)
Ninohtîyâpâkwân. (I am thirsty.)	Minihkwe. (Drink.)
Namoya nikaskîhtân. (I can't do it.)	Kocî mîna. (Try again.)
Ni nôhtî pîhtwân. (I want to smoke.)	Pîhtwa. (Smoke.)

WHEN YOU HAVE FOUND YOUR PARTNER, write a four-line poem.

To form trios, have students look for an additional statement about what not to do in that situation or event.

Once students have formed a pair or trio, they may be asked to offer other advice about the problem. The possibilities are endless.

Definitions

Students are asked to draw a card and circulate among other students asking them to read/ restate the word or phrase (definition) on their card. If the phrase on one card describes the word on the other, students form a pair.

This can also be done with trios by adding a picture to a third card. The students must look for a word, phrase and picture that match.

Once students have formed a pair or trio, they may be asked to play a game, write a joint story, make up some definitions. The possibilities are endless.

Example:

room	definition	picture
clothing	definition	picture
food	definition	picture
animal	definition	picture
object	definition	picture
place	definition	picture

Synonyms

Students are asked to draw a card and circulate among other students asking if the word or phrase on their card agrees. When the phrase on one card is a synonym for the word on the other, students form a pair or trio.

Once students have formed a pair or trio, they may be asked to identify synonyms, play a game, write a joint story, make up some definitions. The possibilities are endless.

Example:

happy	glad	pleased
I am hungry.	I want to eat.	It is noon.
It is winter.	January	It is snowing.
Jane has one sister and one brother.	May has one brother and one sister.	John has two sisters.

Rhyming words

Students are asked to draw a card and circulate among other students looking for words that rhyme. When the word on one card rhymes with the word on the other, students form a pair or trio (or larger group).

Split sentences

Students are asked to draw a card and circulate among other students asking them if their phrases make up a sentence. If the phrase on one card begins or completes the phrase on the other, students form a pair.

This can also be done with trios by adding a picture to a third card. Then the students must look for two parts of a sentence and a picture that illustrates that sentence.

Once students have formed a pair or trio, they may be asked to compose a sentence, change the verb tense of the sentence, play a game, write a joint story, make up some definitions. The possibilities are endless.

Example:

I went to the	movies on Saturday.
I sang in the church	choir on Sunday.
He ate spaghetti and	meatballs on Monday.
She danced	on stage on Tuesday.
We swam in the	pool on Wednesday.
You drank	fourteen glasses of water on Thursday.
They read	the newspaper on Friday.

Changing tenses

Students are asked to draw a card and circulate among other students asking if the word or phrase on the other card says the same thing, but in a different tense (past, future, conditional, etc.). When the phrases agree, students form a pair or trio.

Once students have formed a pair or trio, they may be asked to elaborate on each phrase, make up a story using all the phrases, have a dialogue and use these phrases while conversing, act out the phrase in the present tense for another group (charade style). The possibilities are endless.

Example:

I am happy.	I will be happy.	I was happy.
He is lost.	He will be lost.	He was lost.
He is eating supper late.	He will eat supper late.	He ate supper late.

Questions and answers

Students are asked to draw a card and circulate among other students to discover either the answer or question to their card. When the phrases agree, students form a pair.

Once students have formed a pair, they may be asked to compose several questions and answers that could be used for another grouping game, change the tense of the question and see that the answer agrees. The possibilities are endless.

Example:

What time does the store close?	The store closes at 5:00 p.m.
Where are my gloves?	Your gloves are in your pocket.
Where are his gloves?	His gloves are in his sleeve.
Where are her gloves?	They are on her hands.
If I am late, what should I do?	You should take a cab to the show and meet me there.

Theme charts

Charts similar to Figure 4 can be completed by groups of two, three or four students. Vary themes according to those covered in class.

fruit	summer clothing
vegetables	winter clothing
animals	food
clothing	holiday food
body parts	cities

days of the week
colours
family members
rooms
objects in a room
buildings
weather
spring clothing
seasons
careers
verbs
numbers
means of transportation
phone numbers
addresses
milk products

Figure 4. Theme Chart for Grouping Games

THEMES	NAME	NAME	NAME	NAME
verbs				
numbers				
food				
clothing				
family members				
animals				
places				
objects				

13. What Are Communicative Role-Play Activities?

According to D. Andrew Wilkins, in communicative role-play activities, students use language to act out what they would do in various situations.

1. Judgement and Evaluation
   - Granddaughter goes to grandmother after school to discuss something that has been bothering her.
   - Younger sister borrows something from older sister and blames it on a third sister.
   - Younger brother borrows something from older brother and blames it on a third brother.
   - Teacher disapproves of a new fashion worn by student (hair-do, jewelry, skirt length, clothing).
   - Two girls gossip about how others are dressed.
   - Younger sister borrows something from an older sister, denies it and blames another sister for it.
   - Younger brother borrows something from an older brother, denies it and blames another brother for it.
   - Daughter borrows something from mother, denies it and blames another sister for it.
   - Son borrows something from father, denies it and blames another brother for it.
   - Student explains to teacher why something didn't get done. Teacher is not satisfied with explanation.
   - Student shows teacher his new clothing. Teacher expresses approval.
   - Student shows teacher her new clothing. Teacher expresses approval.
   - Student shows teacher his new clothing. Teacher expresses disapproval.
   - Student shows teacher her new clothing. Teacher expresses disapproval.

2. Suasion
   - Student goes to an elder for advice. (advising)
   - Two friends share a secret. One threatens the other if s/he tells. (threatening)
   - People think they have rights to do something in an everyday situation.
   - Elder offers a prediction to you. (warning, advice, prediction)
   - Grandmother warns teenage granddaughter about the risks of drinking.
   - Grandfather warns teenage grandson about the risks of drinking.
   - Granddaughter approaches grandmother for some advice.
   - Grandson approaches grandfather for some advice.
   - Mother tells child not to make fun of someone else or the same thing might happen to the child.
   - Someone bullies you into doing what they want.
   - Teacher accuses student of doing something. Student denies it even though there is evidence present.

- An assertive student tries to persuade another student to tell something. The second reluctantly gives in.
- Two people observe someone they are jealous of, and though they disapprove of the person's behaviour, they choose to imitate it.
- A mother warns her daughter about going out with a certain boy.

3. Argument
   - Student denies an accusation made by parent.
   - Student denies an accusation made by grandparent.
   - Student can't find gym equipment. A second student denies seeing it.
   - Teacher presents evidence and accuses student of wrong-doing. Student denies it.
   - An assertive student tries to persuade another student about a test score.
   - Younger brother borrows something from an older brother, denies it and blames another brother for it.
   - Daughter borrows something from mother, denies it and blames another sister for it.
   - Son borrows something from father, denies it and blames another brother for it.

4. Rational Inquiry and Exposition
   - Student gets into a tough situation at school. Student explains to teacher why something didn't get done.
   - A stranger asks you for directions to the _____ on the reserve.
   - Student explains to teacher why something didn't get done. Teacher is not satisfied with explanation.
   - Two teenagers are on the phone. One explains why something didn't happen to the other.
   - One student calls another after school to tell him/her about what happened in school.
   - A Native girl explains to a non-Native how to make bannock.

5. Personal Emotions
   - Two people talk about a person they both like.
   - Two people talk about a person they both dislike.
   - Two students share/compare parents' rules which they like.
   - Two students share/compare parents' rules which they dislike.
   - Two students share/compare school's rules which they like.
   - Two students share/compare school's rules which they dislike.

6. Emotional Relations
   - Mother appreciates daughter's decision-making.
   - Two people discuss someone's appearance in a positive way.
   - A girl flatters a boy with the goal of getting something from him.

- Two boys observe a third boy they are jealous of. Although they disapprove of the actions of the third boy, they imitate him.
- Daughter introduces a new friend to her mother.
- A mother tells a daughter about what a good decision she made.
- One person flatters another in order to get something from the other.
- One person returns something to another and expresses thanks.
- Two teenagers are on the phone. One explains why something didn't happen to the other.
- You go to visit a sick relative.
- You bring a gift to a friend for his/her birthday.

14. What Classroom Games Are Suitable for the Native Language Program?

Song games, played while singing a song, can be culturally rich. Similarly, chanting games like the traditional English game "Red Rover," skipping and bouncing games, and counting-off rhymes (Eeny, meeny, miney, mo), if they exist in the traditional culture, should be utilized in language instruction.

Board games can be adapted to the Native language. For example:

- *Pictionary* (change categories and make a smaller board)
- *Snakes and Ladders* (add pictures to many spaces; as students land on a space they must be able to say the word in order to stay on the space; otherwise, they move back one until they can identify a picture or hit an empty space)
- Cooperative games such as *Max*, *Harvest Time*, *Sleeping Giant*.

Memory card games. Students place cards face down and try to select a card pair. Or, using one half of the cards, they try to name the object on the card in the Native language.

Bingo has many possible variations for teaching language. Usually the caller (which needn't be a teacher) draws from a collection of pictures, identifies the picture and calls it out. Players cover their pictures – square plastic bag closures work well! Cards can have 3, 5, 9, 15, 16 . . . objects. Winners must get 2 of 3, 4 corners, diagonal, picture frame, one line, full house. Bingo can also be played with words/phrases/sentences.

Listening activities and games teach comprehension. For example, listening to a television or radio broadcast about news or weather (from a multicultural station in Canada) and retelling what was told through guided questioning.

Sound discrimination – teacher says two words and students decide if the words are the same or different.

Example:

house	house
house	horse
stick	stink

Speed variation – listening to texts produced by native speakers at different speeds.

Dialect detection – listening to texts spoken by speakers from different regions or countries but using the same language.

Shadow Puppets: Indian Myths and Legends (Cree and Blackfoot Versions), produced by ACCESS NETWORK, can be used in listening activities. The Blackfoot legends have now been produced with a Blackfoot language soundtrack, and the Cree legends have been produced in three different dialects – Northern Cree, Northwestern Cree and Plains Cree.

The order numbers and titles of the available versions of the series are:

Shadow Puppets: Indian Myths and Legends (Northern Cree) — BPN 3473
- 01 Wîsahkîcâhk and the Flood
- 02 Why the Moose's Skin Is Loose
- 03 Wîsahkîcâhk and the Geese/Wîsahkîcâhk and the Chickadee

Shadow Puppets: Indian Myths and Legends (Northwestern Cree) — BPN 3474
- 01 Wîsahkîcâhk and the Flood
- 02 Why the Moose's Skin Is Loose
- 03 Wîsahkîcâhk and the Geese/Wîsahkîcâhk and the Chickadee

Shadow Puppets: Indian Myths and Legends (Plains Cree) — BPN 3475
- 01 Wîsahkecâhk and the Flood
- 02 Why the Moose's Skin Is Loose
- 03 Wîsahkecâhk and the Geese/Wîsahkecâhk and the Chickadee

Shadow Puppets: Indian Myths and Legends (Blackfoot) — BPN 3476
- 01 Scarface: The Story of Sundance
- 02 Naapi and the Mice/Naapi and the Rock
- 03 The Ghostpipe
- 04 The Bear Who Stole the Chinook

For further information on ordering from ACCESS NETWORK, call 1-800-352-8293. (If you are located in Calgary, please phone 256-1100.) Or you can write to:

ACCESS NETWORK
Media Resource Centre
295 Midpark Way, S.E.
Calgary, Alberta
T2X 2A8
Fax: (403) 256-6837

Out-of-province enquiries should be directed to ACCESS NETWORK **Program Services** at the above address.

Speaking activities and games should be "authentic" and, when possible, allow students to practice speaking with people they have not talked to before.

- Telephone interviews – Parents volunteer to receive a short phone call from a student.
- Interviews of famous people – Students first do research to learn some facts about a famous person. Then, working in pairs, one interviews while the other plays the role of the famous person and answers the questions.
- Television broadcasts – Students report news, sports, weather; conduct interviews.
- Chain drills – Students repeat an opening phrase and a growing list of items identified by fellow students; then add one of their own.

Examples:

I'm going on a trip and in my suitcase I will pack . . .
On Christmas Eve we will . . .
In the New Year I wish . . .
In the afternoon I like to . . .
If I had a million dollars I would . . .
I'm going shopping and I will buy . . .

- Group story/Collective story – Each student makes up one sentence of a story that is initiated by the teacher or a student.
- Twenty questions – One student thinks of an object (or the teacher identifies possible objects on paper and the student selects one). Other students must ask questions to guess what it is. Only 20 questions, all requiring "yes" or "no" answers, may be asked.
- Role-playing activities – Pretend you're in a hospital, post office, store, car-wash, kitchen, restaurant, . . .
- "Simon says" – The teacher (or a student) gives directions. (For example: "Rub your

nose.", "Sit down.") Only directions preceded by the words, "Simon says" are to be followed.

- Robot – One student must do everything another tells him in a robotic way. For example, "Go to the blackboard.", "Draw a circle.", "Sit down.", "Stand up.", "Go to the door.", "Turn right.", "Walk forward three steps.", "Sit down." . . .
- Picture cards – Teacher turns a series of picture cards face down. One student picks a card and gives several clues about it until the rest of the group can guess what it is. Cards should relate to themes students are familiar with.
- Name a word – Student says a word. The next student must say a word which begins with the last letter of the previous word. And so on. A variation for more advanced students might be to restrict the words to a theme (clothes, food, places).
- Concentration – In this game, participants sit in a circle and create a rhythm together (slap-clap-snap-clap slap-clap-snap-clap . . .). The leader of the group identifies a category or theme and each person must name an object that fits that theme while maintaining the beat. Once an object has been named it cannot be repeated. If a student repeats a word or cannot think of one, the game halts, the person is "out" and the game starts again beginning with the person who would have been next in the circle. For example:

  Teacher/Leader: Concentration, concentration
  The category is ANIMALS
  Student 1: dog
  Student 2: cat
  Student 3: horse
  Student 4: deer

- Lightning – This game must be played very quickly. Teacher chants the following:
  A ship goes sailing, sailing, sailing
  With a letter, letter, letter _____.
  The teacher says a letter and points to a child who must name a word which begins with that letter. OR:
  A ship goes sailing, sailing, sailing
  With a banner, banner, banner on _____.
  The teacher says a category and points to a child who must name a word that belongs to that category.

- Telefun
  1. Give students a chart-sheet to fill in information about themselves – age, address, phone number, height, weight, number of siblings . . .

  2. Discuss the "statistics" with the class using guiding questions.

For example, guiding questions for the item, "How do you get to school?" might be: How many students walk to school? come by bus? come by school bus? How many females walk? come by bus? come by school bus? How many males walk? come by bus? come by school bus?

For a question about birthdates, guiding questions might be: How many students have birthdays in (month)? (season)? (year)? How many females? How many males? Who is older than _____? Who is younger than _____?

3. After working through a few columns in class so that the students understand how to acquire the information, ask each student to call one other student in the evening to find out the new information. The conversation must take place in the Native language. One way to organize the activity would be to ask each student to call the student whose name is after his/hers on the chart.

4. If this activity works well, exchanges of more complex messages can be organized: exchange a recipe, information about a favourite book or television show, an invitation to an event. The information can be written down by the receiver and verified with the sender the next day in class.

5. Other possible information: favourite authors, film directors, books, restaurants, colours, clothing, hobbies, songs, food, friends . . .

Research shows that oral language has to be more precise and accurate when visual clues and possibilities for "paralanguage" are removed. Using the telephone places second language learners in this situation.

Reading activities and games

- Board games which require reading.
- Matching vowels and making up words with given letters or syllables.
- Relay races – Teacher writes two lists of words on the board, both containing the same words but in a different order. The teacher divides the class into two teams. Students line up an equal distance from the blackboard. The teacher shouts a word. The first player of each team must run to the blackboard, pick up the brush and erase the word. Whichever team completes the task first gets a point. This is repeated until each member of the team has had a chance. This can also be done with three or four teams.
- Map reading – Working in pairs, students give each other directions to get from point A to point B.
- Scrambled sentences – Teacher prepares sentences with known vocabulary and writes one word from the sentence on each of a set of cards. Students take the cards and,

working in pairs, put the words in order to make a sentence. Put all cards for one sentence on paper of the same colour (sentence 1 – yellow, sentence 2 – red, . . .).

Writing activities and games

- Puzzles – Crosswords, wordsearch, anacrostics, cryptograms, syllablanks, anagrams, words x 5, pyramids, quizzes, fit-a-word.
- Relay races – Teacher divides class into a number of equal teams. Students line up an equal distance from the blackboard. The teacher shouts a word. The first player of each team must run to the blackboard, pick up the chalk and write the word on the board (correctly). Whichever team completes the task first gets a point. This is repeated until each member of the team has had a chance.
- Mazes – Use mazes with cultural significance, e.g., characters from a fairy tale.
- Match objects with characters.
- Give students a written list of missing objects to find in a picture.
- Create a message by using pictures – The first letter of each word (represented by the picture) is part of the message.
- Print a word so you can read it in a mirror!
- Directions in the wrong order – Students, working in pairs or individually, are given a list of directions to make a cake or construct something. They must put the directions in the right order.
- Grouping games – Antonyms, synonyms, split sentences (proverbs), advice, question-answer.
- Word creation games – Students, working in pairs, receive three sets of alphabet letters (26 x 3 = 78 small cards with one letter on each). Teacher identifies a theme and calls out a word on that theme. Students must find the letters to make that word. The first pair to do so shouts STOP. If they can make up a sentence using that word, they get a point.

  Examples:

  season theme – winter
  days of the week theme – Friday
  family theme – mother

Number games

- Relay races

  Version A: Two to four equal groups of students line up an equal distance from the blackboard. The teacher calls out a number. One member from each team runs to the blackboard, writes the number on the board, leaves the chalk on the blackboard ledge and runs to the back of the line. The team that completes the task first gets a point.

Version B: Two to four equal groups of students line up an equal distance from the blackboard. For each team, a set of numbers 1-40 are randomly placed on the blackboard. The teacher calls out a number. One member from each team runs to the blackboard, puts an "X" through the number on the blackboard, runs back to the next team player, passes him/her the chalk and moves to the back of the line. The relay continues. The team that completes the task first gets a point.

- King's chair – A group of students sit in a semi-circle and "number off" in sequence. Number ONE is king. KING calls a number. The student who has that number must call out another number, and so on. Any player who fails to answer immediately or who calls his own number must go to the end of the line and then everyone has a new number. The goal of the game is to catch the KING off guard and cause him to move.

- Spin the plate – Players stand in a circle and number off. "IT" stands in the middle, spins a metal or plastic plate or lid and calls out a number. The player with that number must retrieve the plate while it is still spinning. If he fails, he is IT.

  Variation: Use a problem to determine the number called. (Instead of calling 12, IT calls 6 x 2.)

- Buzz – A forbidden number is selected (4 or 7 or ?). In a set order, players call off numbers, beginning with 1. Instead of saying the forbidden number (or any multiple of it or any number of which it is a part) the player must say BUZZ. Those who do not are eliminated from the game.

  Variation: Choose two forbidden numbers, for example, 3 and 8. In place of 3 or multiples of 3, the players say BUZZ. In place of 8 or multiples of 8, players say FIZZ. For a number that involves both numbers, like 38, they say BUZZ-FIZZ.

Spelling games

- Chain spelling – A category of words is selected (for example, animals). The first player spells a word in the category (for example, cat). The second player spells another word in the category that begins with the last letter of the first word used (for example, tiger).

- Small words from a big one – Write one fairly long word on the blackboard. Organize students in groups. With a time limit, have each group create as many words as possible using letters from the word (for example, alphabet, blackboard).

- Sign language spelling – Students spell words using motions in place of vowels:
  A – raise right hand
  E – raise left hand

I – point to eyes
O – point to mouth
U – point to teacher

For example, to spell "minute," say M, point to eyes, say N, point to teacher, say T, raise left hand.

This is my foot – Students sit in a circle. One player is selected as IT and goes to the middle of the circle. IT stands in front of a player, points to a body part and says, "This is my _____." (a different body part). The other player must point to the correct body part and say it is what IT originally pointed to.

Example:

IT points to his nose and says, "This is my foot."
Player points to his foot and says, "This is my nose."
If the player fails, he becomes IT.

Completely opposite – Players sit in two rows, opposite one another, with one extra player as IT. IT walks behind one row, stops behind a player and calls a word. The player opposite must call out the antonym. If he fails, he becomes IT.

Vocabulary on the double – One player is chosen as IT. IT points at a player, calls out a word and begins counting to 12. Before the count of 12, the identified player must name a word that begins with each of the letters in the word called by IT. If he fails, he becomes IT.

Example:

If IT calls out "ham," the player might say, "house, apple, mouse."

Variation: All of the words spelled must be in the same category (food, animals, clothing, etc.).

Word Bingo – Each player and the teacher need a sheet of paper divided into 16 squares. The teacher or IT selects a category (body parts, food, clothing, etc.). Within a fixed period of time, players must fill in each square with a word from the category. At the end of the time limit, IT calls out the words on his/her sheet. The player who has the most words in common with IT becomes IT.

Building words – Twenty word endings are placed on the blackboard. For example, for the English language, the word endings could be: -ted, -ent, -ket, -her, -red, -dow, -sty, -ure, -ich, -ute, -ase, -ind, -tch, -wly, -ter, -ons, -try, -mes, -ast, -ics. Within a set time each

player (or a team of players) must come up with a word that has each of the endings. The player or team with the most words wins.

Word families – The teacher writes a list of words on the board. Players must write (or say) a word that has the same root word as the word on the board. The player who finishes first wins.

Example:

Words on the Board	Player's Answers
science	scientist
law	lawyer
bake	bakery

Have you seen my dog? – All players stand in a circle, except IT. IT goes up to one player and asks, "Have you seen my dog?" The player responds, "What does he look like?" IT describes one of the players in the circle. The player must guess the person being described. If he succeeds, he becomes IT.

Teaching conversation – Simple structured activities can provide conversation models for students. For example, the teacher could instruct students to call her one evening. Each student must extend a greeting, ask a simple question (e.g., "What are you doing?") and say goodbye.

Students could practice the following types of conversations:

- Talking on the phone – wrong number
- Taking a message for someone who is not home
- Talking to a friend
- Calling for information
- Ordering food from a delivery outlet
- Calling to find out what someone is doing
- Inviting someone to go shopping
- Inviting someone to go to a movie
- Inviting someone to play Bingo
- Inviting someone to do an errand
- Inviting someone on a date
- Inviting someone to go hunting.

Family trees – Students prepare a family tree, possibly with photographs. Working in pairs, each student quizzes the other about the family tree. For example: How many brothers do you have? How many sisters do you have? . . .

Shopping spree – Send students on a field trip to a nearby store to write down the prices of the cheapest of selected items. For example: soap, detergent, lipstick, towel, birthday card.

Practicing social formulas – Students dramatize (act and say) these standard phrases in a polite and respectful manner:
See you later.
Do you have the time?
Excuse me. (or equivalent)
Of course.
It's quite all right.
Oh, I'm sorry.
Will you excuse me, please.
Pardon me? (I'm sorry I can't hear you. Could you speak a little louder?)

Telling jokes – Divide the class in two. Half of the class leaves the room, while the teacher tells a joke to the others. When the other half of the class comes back into the room, students work in pairs – the ones who heard the joke tell it to a classmate who did not.

Discussing and interpreting cartoons – Students analyse cartoons, possibly from *Windspeaker* or other Native periodicals.

Accumulative sensory activities – Students bring objects from home and place them on a tray at the back of the room. The teacher helps students record the names of the objects in the second language. Students can check to see what objects are there from day to day. When ten or more objects are accumulated, the teacher can play a memory-writing game. After looking at the objects for 30 seconds, students must write down their names. The objects could be selected thematically, for example, objects that have a distinct smell, taste, touch or sound.

Vocabulary box – Two students work with a small box containing objects related to a theme (school objects, kitchen objects, fruits or vegetables, nature pictures, doll clothes, animals, things to open and close, things to measure). One student asks for an object and gives a direction to do something with an object. The other student follows the direction.

Tsa anistapi? (What is it?) – Words on a theme are written down on small slips of paper or flash cards. Almost all categories can be used (body parts, colours, occupations, animals, clothing). The object of the game is to earn as many points as possible in a certain amount of time. About 10-20 minutes is required, depending on how many students are playing.

To start the game, the teacher picks a number from 1 to 20. The students choose their number (in Blackfoot) and whoever is the closest or right on is the first one to pick a card.

The student who picks a card goes to the front of the room and says, "Tsa anistapi?" ("What is this?" or "What am I?" depending on the category). The others guess words in Blackfoot.

Points can be gained or lost. The leader can show other team members what he thinks is on the card. If it's right he gains a point. If not, he loses a point. Other guessers can gain points by providing the correct answer.

Charades

Nitaooyi. (I am eating.)
Nitaisimi. (I am drinking.)
Nitaisinaaki. (I am writing.)
Nita'pao'taki. (I am working.)
Nitai'poyi. (I am talking.)

Geography game – Obtain a map of North America that indicates where Native communities are located. Groups of two to four students select a community and prepare a brief description of it for the rest of the class.

The class must guess which community the students are describing from information about:

- weather/climate
- lakes, rivers and oceans in the area
- mountains, deserts or other major landforms
- animals, birds and insects in the area
- the tribe that lives there
- language(s)/dialect(s) spoken
- facts about the people.

15. How Can Verbs Be Taught?

A structured method of teaching verb conjugations encourages students to DISCOVER meaning, instead of being explicitly told.

For example, teachers typically follow this routine in teaching verbs:

1. Show an illustration and do a distinct action for:
   I am sitting.
   I am standing.
   I am running.

2. Review these verbs, changing the order to see if students remember them.
3. Introduce the YOU form.
4. Review both I and YOU forms.
5. Introduce a new verb in both the I and YOU forms.
6. Review.
7. Introduce HE/SHE forms with all verbs learned to date.
8. Review all verbs presented to date in all forms known.
9. Introduce a new verb in all forms.
10. Introduce the formal YOU form and practice with all verbs known to date.
11. Review.
12. Introduce a new verb and practice using it in all known forms.
13. Introduce the WE form and practice with all verbs.
14. Review.
15. Introduce a new verb and practice it in all forms.
16. Introduce the THEY form and practice it with all verbs known.
17. Review.

The following plan for seven sequential classes illustrates how students could be taught the verbs "sit," "run" and "stand."

First Class
Teacher shows an illustration, demonstrates with a distinct action and says:
apih (sit) (Students repeat the word.)
nipawih (stand) (Students repeat the word.)
pimpatah (run) (Students repeat the word.)

Teacher encourages students to point to themselves as they sit down/stand up/run and repeat the appropriate word. This will teach them that they are saying "I" "am sitting," "am standing," "am running."

Teacher asks students to repeat as a whole class, by row, just the boys, just the girls, individually.

Second Class
Teacher reviews activities of first class, this time changing the order of presentation of verbs.

Teacher hands one student an illustration and asks **in the Native language**, "What are you doing?" Student answers appropriately, "I am _____." Teacher repeats, changing the verb illustrations until all students have had a turn.

Third Class
Teacher reviews activities of second class and introduces a new verb:
ohpi (I am _____.)

Teacher encourages students to point to themselves as they do the action and repeat the new word.

Teacher distributes the new verb illustration to several students, asking them **in the Native language**, "What are you doing?"

Teacher invites other students to pass an illustration to another student and ask the question.

Fourth Class
Teacher reviews activities of third class.

Teacher introduces second person singular in the following manner:
Hold up one verb illustration and point to one student, saying **in the Native language**:
"YOU are sitting."

Hold up each verb illustration and point to a student, saying **in the Native language**:
"YOU are running."
"YOU are standing."
"YOU are _____."

The teacher emphasizes the word **in the Native language** which denotes YOU.

Students are asked to repeat each verb as a whole class, by row, just the boys, just the girls, individually.

Fifth Class
Teacher reviews activities of previous class, this time also changing the order of presentation of verbs.

Teacher hands one student an illustration and asks **in the Native language**, "What are you doing?" Student answers appropriately, "I am _____." Teacher repeats, changing the verb illustrations until all students have had a turn.

Sixth Class
Teacher reviews activities of previous class and introduces a new verb:
ohpi (I am _____.)

Teacher encourages students to point to themselves as they do the action and repeat the new word.

Teacher distributes the new verb illustration to several students, asking them **in the Native language**, "What are you doing?"

Teacher invites other students to pass an illustration to another student and ask the question.

Seventh Class
Teacher reviews activities from previous class.

Teacher introduces second person plural in the following manner:
Hold up one verb illustration and point to one student, saying **in the Native language**:
"YOU are sitting."

Hold up each verb illustration and point to a student, saying **in the Native language**:
"YOU are running."
"YOU are standing."
"YOU are _____."

The teacher emphasizes the word **in the Native language** which denotes YOU (plural).

Students are asked to repeat each verb as a whole class, by row, just the boys, just the girls, individually.

16. What Are Rebus Readings?

Rebus readings are a form of written language that allows beginners to see both the word and a picture associated with the word. Most rebus readings are folktales, songs or poems. The pictures help students understand the meaning and remember the written form of the story, song or verse. Rebus reading is a useful means of first introducing language learners to the print form of the language. As stories, songs and poems are taught orally, students can also see them in print form.

Illustrations help students who do not speak the language to understand the message. They also help students who do speak the language to remember key words in writing if they already know them orally. The written form beside the picture introduces students to two visual ways of expressing the same thing.

Rebus readings provide a bridge for beginner readers if the messages are simple and accurate.

Suggested procedure:

- Teacher teaches/explains the song/verse.
- Teacher points to each word/picture, saying the word and inviting students to repeat it.
- Teacher points to the words/pictures and invites students to sing/recite.

Picture sources include:

- cut-outs
- tracings from colouring books
- drawings by teacher, family members or students
- magazines
- travel brochures
- kits in any language
- discarded textbooks from schools
- books of pictures.

High school Native language students may be interested in creating rebus readings for use in the elementary Native language program.

17. How Should Teachers Select Passages to Be Read Aloud?

When selecting a literature piece/legend for **beginners**, consider:

- Does it have a predictable pattern?
- Does it contain concrete language (no long passages of heavy description)?
- Does it contain illustrations? Or do you have to prepare props to help clarify a point WITHOUT using English?
- Can the story be dramatized?
- Is it of interest to the age group?
- Is it humourous?
- Does it fit a theme you are studying?

When selecting a literature piece/legend for **intermediate** students, consider:

- Is it a suitable length to hold their interest?
- Does it contain concrete language – lots of dialogue exchanges, some short descriptive passages? Is the language selected clarified in context?
- Can the story be written about as a re-tell activity?
- Can the story be reread as a dialogue?
- Can the story be reflected upon for writing? (As a story starter: "This story reminds me of . . .")
- Is it of interest to the age group?
- Does it fit a theme you are studying?

When selecting a literature piece/legend for **advanced** students, consider:

- Is it a suitable length to hold their interest?
- Does it contain rich and varied language?
- Is the story controversial so as to provoke a lively discussion following the reading? Or, might a response be written about the story?
- Can the story be written about as a re-tell activity?
- Can the story be rewritten as a play?

Note: For intermediate and advanced students, avoid illustrations, even if the book has them. Do not use English to clarify meaning. Encourage students to infer meaning from context.

18. How Can Dialogue Be Used in the Native Language Program?

Dialogue is a technique that ensures some language accuracy is taught directly. A dialogue includes interaction between characters in a familiar setting. It allows students to hear conversation.

The dialogue method is an adaptation of the audiovisual approach that was popular many years ago. It is done on a daily basis over a three to five-week time period, with different steps in the process being conducted each day.

1. **Presentation** – During the presentation phase students gain a global comprehension of the situation. The teacher points to parts of each picture on between seven and twelve $8^{1/2}$" x 11" illustrated cards and recites a dialogue.

2. **Explanation** – The teacher explains the meaning of the dialogue, until every word is understood. Translation is not the goal of this method, but rather an inner sense of what a word means. Explanation can be done by drawing pictures, dramatizing, inflection or bringing in props.

3. **Memorization** – Students practice learning the dialogue using memorization and song. The use of music to learn the dialogue allows students to participate better in the rhythm of the language and learn more quickly.

Steps 1 through 3 are repeated for the first two to four classes.

4. **Sequencing** – By about the third class, students are asked to confirm comprehension of the dialogue by mixing and matching the illustrated dialogue cards. The teacher mixes up the cards along the chalk ledge. Students are asked which card should be first. They go up to the card and move it to the first position. The teacher also asks if

the student can remember what was said in the dialogue for this picture. if so, the whole class repeats what the student says. If not, the teacher helps the student and once completed the whole class repeats what was said.

Alternative approach – The teacher randomly distributes dialogue cards to class members and asks who has the first card. The student with the first card says what the dialogue says and the entire class repeats it. This continues until all of the dialogue cards are in order.

5. **Dramatization** – When students know most of the dialogue by heart, dramatization begins. The teacher divides the class into groups. The number of members in each group is the same as the number of roles in the dialogue. Each group member is given a different role. (The teacher should keep track of who plays what role.) The teacher points to dialogue pictures to cue group members as to whose turn it is to say what.

   When group dramatizations have taken place, students will be ready to present the dialogue in front of the class. Props are very helpful to students at this stage. Every child should have a chance to present the dialogue, ideally in every role. Thus there will be ample opportunity for repetition.

6. **Transpositions** – A transposition is an activity in which students extend their knowledge of second language concepts learned in one context by applying them to other familiar contexts. Transpositions can be created to stress phonological, lexical, syntactic, morphological and semantic aspects of language. Usually a change of context precipitates some other changes to the text. For example, a dialogue might be about losing a jacket; the transposition would show that another item could be lost in this context. Or, a dialogue might be about going to a movie; the transposition would show going to many different places. Students are asked to accommodate each change so that the grammar and vocabulary make sense. Transpositions should be initially written on the blackboard so that students see the changes which are precipitated by the new scenario.

7. **Testing for comprehension** – Students are given small-size dialogue pictures and asked to put them in the right order. Or, they may be asked to identify the picture that corresponds to one dialogue sentence. Or, if more advanced, they could be asked to write out the dialogue sentence that corresponds to the picture.

8. **Improvization** – Students apply the dialogue setting to a new situation. For example, if the dialogue is about a boy who goes to a pet store with his father to purchase a pet and ends up with a fish, groups could be asked to improvise these scenarios:
   - a girl and her brother purchase a dog
   - a mother and child purchase a hamster.

PART FIVE: EVALUATION IN THE NATIVE LANGUAGE PROGRAM

1. What Does Evaluation Involve?

In the Native language program evaluation should focus on:

- learners – the product of their efforts
  – the process they went through to produce the product
- teachers
- resource materials
- program
- community.

Assessment can be done by teachers and by the learners themselves.

Teachers should always be examining their own teaching, looking for better ways to communicate with students, identify students' needs, plan instruction and motivate students. Feedback from learners can be very helpful in this regard. Simply ask students which activities they most enjoy and least enjoy and take their responses into consideration. Input from program officials and consultants about teaching approaches can also be useful. Such feedback should be designed to strengthen the program, and not intimidate the teacher.

Resource materials for the program should be examined on a regular basis. Are they appropriate to the language levels of the learners? to their interests? Are they up to date? Are they interesting and motivating? Are they varied (audiovisual resources, involvement of local elders and community members)?

The program should be evaluated internally and externally to ensure that all parties involved are contributing in the best way and according to agreed-upon guidelines. This phase involves input from all parents, Chief and Council, school staff, elders, administrators, teachers and students.

Evaluation is called many things. Common terms include:

- formative evaluation
- summative evaluation
- testing
- assessment
- feedback.

Evaluation serves many functions, including these:

- to motivate learning
- to assist in the administration of the program

- to provide information for educational research studies
- to provide information for use in guidance and counselling of students.

2. What Are Formative Evaluation and Summative Evaluation?

Formative evaluation is a continuous activity in the teaching/learning process. It is closely linked to instruction. It monitors the progress of students and provides immediate feedback on specific tasks. This feedback informs students of their degree of success in performing a specific task and provides them with immediate help, if necessary. This feedback is also important to the teacher for making decisions on the nature and direction of future learning and evaluation activities.

Students should be involved in assessing their own effort and progress and in providing feedback to the teacher about the content and methodology selected. When students are actively involved in evaluation, they take greater responsibility for their own learning.

Summative evaluation focuses more on the accumulated results of learning. It takes place at specific times in the curricular sequence such as the end of a project/unit, a term or a course. Summative evaluation is used to determine the degree of success students have had in attaining the learner expectations. Student progress can be reported by way of a mark (e.g., percentage, letter grade), an anecdotal report or a level of performance. The report usually goes to the student, parents and school administration. This information is used to make decisions about promotion or the awarding of credits (at the senior high school level) and about the effectiveness of the program.

	FORMATIVE	SUMMATIVE
When?	continuous	periodic
By Whom?	student, peers or teacher	teacher
Reason?	diagnostic feedback to students	administrative decision
Decision?	nature and direction of future learning activities	placement and promotion of student

Student evaluation is an integral, ongoing part of the learning process. Some evaluation techniques can be used as a part of the daily routine. Teachers and students together should keep track of:

- corrections
- comprehension

- accuracy of function, vocabulary, usage
- strategies being used by the student (reflection/feedback).

3. When Should Teachers Correct Errors Made by Students?

Error correction can be disruptive to communication when the student is concentrating hard on conveying personal meaning and sustaining communication. Correction should therefore normally take place only if an error stands in the way of comprehension, in which case the teacher may have to give the correct word or verify the student's intent. In controlled activities, however, there is room for corrections that might be disruptive to open-ended activities. It is important to correct errors immediately when new words and structures are being presented and when students are rehearsing, when groups are practicing or when written material is presented. Depending on the nature of the activity, correction may focus only on a particular structure, tense, sound or word.

4. What Guidelines Should Teachers Follow When Evaluating Learners?

- Evaluate learners in realistic situations insofar as possible.
- Test learners' skills on extended passages of language rather than on isolated language parts.
- Test learners' skills in terms of comprehension, accuracy, cultural appropriateness and discourse.
- Test learners by using the kind of language they have experienced in their lessons and their lives.
- Test and assess learners on the process of their learning as well as the product or outcome.

5. What Functions Do Tests Serve?

We assess a student's ability for a variety of reasons:

- to place
- for long-term planning
- to determine student attitudes
- to report student progress.

From the teachers' and students' perspective, tests serve these functions:

- Tests can facilitate and motivate learning. The anticipation of a forthcoming evaluation may affect students' focus on learning. Students are more attentive and retain more knowledge when they know they are going to be tested on the content. (Frequent, short tests are a far more effective learning aid than infrequent, long tests.)

- Tests are a useful means of overlearning. When we review, interact with or practice skills

and concepts even after they have been learned, we are engaging in overlearning. Scheduled tests not only stimulate review, but also foster overlearning.

From the school and school board administrators' perspective, tests serve these functions:

- Tests provide a mechanism for quality control. If a school district does not have a system of periodic self-evaluation, instructional inadequacies and curriculum deficiencies may go unnoticed. The evidence suggests that substantial improvement typically occurs when a school staff sets a specific improvement goal in a subject field.

- Tests facilitate better decisions about student placement, for example, grouping of students and the identification of gifted, learning disabled or other special needs students.

- Tests that measure students' achievement of certain standards of performance allow them to demonstrate competency or knowledge they have acquired outside of class. This type of testing can be used for certification and "advancement by competency" programs.

- Tests support program evaluation and research. Standardized achievement test results are often the key source of data for evaluating the success of specially funded programs.

- Tests can be used to diagnose an individual's special aptitudes, achievements, interests and personality. This information is helpful to guidance counsellors, teachers and others who work with the students.

6. What Is the Role of Observation in Evaluation?

Observation is an extremely important technique. As the focus of learning shifts to the individual students and away from teacher direction, teachers are free to observe learners at work or interacting with one another.

Some suggested observation techniques:

- Make a diagram of seating arrangements and at the end of each class try to write down one thing that you noticed about each student.

- Allow students ten minutes to read silently. What do they do? Do they:
  - settle in quickly?
  - settle in slowly?
  - become totally absorbed in the reading?
  - become absorbed spasmodically?
  - read for a short period only?
  - become distracted?
  - want to share?
  - other?

- During a class discussion or small group discussion, what did you notice about a student?
  - volunteers answers?
  - volunteers personal reports?
  - follows oral instructions without prompting?
  - asks questions to clarify tasks or information?
  - volunteers support and encouragement to others?
  - offers advice or assistance to other students?
  - works cooperatively?
  - listens courteously and attentively?

- In a group setting, does each student:
  - speak clearly and audibly?
  - listen attentively and follow along?
  - initiate ideas?
  - add voluntarily to others' ideas?
  - stay on task or topic?
  - accept criticism well?
  - disagree tactfully?
  - summarize group's activity upon request?

- Observation is a good way of assessing students':
  - affective development (participation and confidence)
  - awareness of audience, purpose
  - listening comprehension (recalling, identifying relationships, making inferences from implicit information)
  - speech (generates ideas from experience/information, organizes thoughts, offers information clearly and concisely)
  - critical/evaluative development (makes judgements as to own success/failure/ effectiveness, identifies particular strategies/techniques)
  - interpersonal strategies (listens attentively and courteously to others, volunteers information, encourages others, communicates feelings to others, works cooperatively).

Observation checklists may also prove useful. Figure 5 is a sample checklist for noting observations of an individual student's progress.

Figure 5. Sample Observation Checklist

DATE: _____ NAME: _____	COMMENTS
The student is able to: 1. describe weather conditions in Alberta by - using an introduction - providing a coherent message - providing a clear message - using a closing 2. identify places where Cree/Blackfoot is spoken 3. use vocabulary about the weather correctly 4. pronounce weather terms clearly and accurately 5. identify weather symbols 6. present a brief weather report (as on the radio or television) Areas to assess: - detail - effort - creativity - humour	_____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

7. How Important Is It to Observe Students' Skills and Attitudes?

Students' attitudes as well as skills are crucial to successful learning. Figures 6 and 7 are sample checklists for recording students' affective and cognitive development.

Figure 6. Sample Observation Checklist of Student Attitude

NAME: _____	DATE	DATE	DATE	COMMENT
1. demonstrates a positive attitude toward Native language and culture (socio-affective)				
2. takes risks in trying to speak/write/ answer questions (socio-affective)				
3. volunteers responses in the Native language				

Figure 7. Sample Observation Checklist of Student Skill Development

NAME: _____	DATE	DATE	DATE	COMMENT
1. understands an oral message in a structured situation				
2. understands a written message in a structured situation				
3. makes him/herself understood orally in a structured situation – up to 2-3 exchanges				
4. makes him/herself understood in writing in a structured situation – up to 2-3 sentences				
5. discovers and identifies Native communities				
6. understands and uses the correct sound system in simple structured oral situations				
7. understands and uses the correct sound/writing system in simple structured written situations				
8. uses correct word order of the Native language in oral communication				
9. uses correct word order of the Native language in written communication				
10. identifies key words in a written passage (e.g., a legend)				
11. uses discovery approach to uncover meaning of words, instead of translation (cognitive)				
12. concentrates for increasing lengths of time on language learning activities (metacognitive)				
13. assesses his/her own language learning strategies (metacognitive)				

8. How Does the Teacher Make Sure That Students Comprehend What Is Asked in the Native Language?

Even at the very beginning stages of language teaching/learning, the teacher should try to use the target language exclusively. This means:

- during classroom procedures
- during learning activities
- while directing instruction.

The teacher must constantly verify with students whether they understood the instructions. This may be done by asking a question in the target language. For example:

- What page are we on?
- What are you supposed to do?
- Is everyone ready?

Once students begin the activity, the teacher can circulate to verify if students understood the instructions and are on task.

9. How Do Students Take Part in Evaluation? What Is Reflection/Feedback?

Reflection is reviewing what has been learned during an activity or a class or unit/project. The teacher should periodically involve students in reflection to obtain feedback on the learning that is (or is not) happening. It is an opportunity for the teacher to verify perceptions of students, to review what they are doing and what they are learning. Feedback provides input for teachers so they can make revisions as needed and it acknowledges students' efforts. Reflection can take place at the conclusion of specific steps in the unit/project or during closure activities at the end of a class.

Reflection/feedback can be as simple as discussing of the learning activities of the day or the plans for the next day. Such a discussion involves the teacher in asking the students what they did in class that day, what they learned and how they can use that knowledge in the development of their unit/project or other communicative situations. The teacher may talk about how the activity will tie into future activities.

Rating scales and interest scales are also a useful means of obtaining feedback from students. Following are three examples of such scales.

Example 1

To succeed in learning the language, you need to be able to do certain things. Check your own ability.

I am able to:	not able 1	2	3	4	very able 5
1. understand the main idea	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
3. participate in a discussion	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
4. express an opinion	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
5. draw and label a diagram clearly	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
6. gather information	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Example 2

Rate the following activities as: 1 — very enjoyable 2 — okay 3 — boring

_____ listening to a taped story
_____ writing a story
_____ role-playing to act out a story
_____ reading a story

Example 3

Interest Scale — Do you like:

- music?
- singing?
- dancing?
- sports?

Journals can be used to receive feedback from students about their progress, their interest in class activities and their views of learning. The following are suggested uses of journals:

1. Response to literature/legends. Students are asked to write their thoughts about and reactions to a story they have heard or read. They might be asked to write whatever they want as an unstructured task, or to respond to a specific question, such as, "What did you think would happen as you read the story?" or "What would you have done if you were X (a certain character)?"

2. Retelling of a past event. Language develops well when students are asked to retell orally or in writing something that they have heard or experienced.

3. Identification of strategies used when learning. Feedback about HOW students are learning (the strategies they use to learn and remember) and the language they use in various settings (formal and informal, in the classroom and in the community, in preparing for a test, etc.) can assist teachers in assessing which additional strategies they might teach.

10. What Are Progress Tests, Closed-Ended Tests and Open-Ended Tests?

Progress tests are administered on an ongoing basis and serve to help students see how they are doing with respect to specific learner objectives.

Closed-ended questions are:
- multiple choice
- true and false
- matching.

Open-ended questions are:
- written or oral compositions, dialogues, narratives and descriptions
- role-playing
- cloze procedures.

11. How Can Teachers Ensure That a Test Will Be Communicative?

To ensure motivation and to ensure a test focuses on communicative competency, keep in mind a context, the task and the learning strategy.

Some **contexts** are:
- an advertisement in the newspaper
- a television excerpt
- a telephone message, or one on answering machine
- a film critique
- a weather forecast
- a sports announcement
- a job advertisement
- a conversation between an adult and a student
- a conversation between two students
- a descriptive paragraph
- an ad on a billboard
- a magazine
- a school newspaper
- a newsletter
- an invitation
- a school announcement
- a letter giving or requesting information.

Some testing **tasks** are:
- demonstrate understanding of the main point of a message by
  - asking/answering comprehension questions

  - underlining the main point
  - choosing the correct answer from a multiple choice list
  - choosing the correct answer in a true/false question
  - choosing the correct answer by matching
  - choosing the correct answer by problem-solving.

- demonstrate understanding of the finer details of a message by
  - asking/answering comprehension questions
  - underlining the main point
  - choosing the correct answer from a multiple choice list
  - choosing the correct answer in a true/false question
  - choosing the correct answer by matching
  - choosing the correct answer by problem-solving.

- negotiating the meaning of a message by
  - asking questions
  - responding to questions
  - problem-solving.

- reading a text for specific information
- completing a dialogue
- role-playing
- recording a message
- initiating and carrying on a conversation
- responding to oral, open-ended questions
- responding to written, open-ended questions
- responding to personal questions
- writing a response/reaction to something
- writing a letter
- summarizing a film, sports event . . .
- critiquing an article, film . . .

Learning strategies include:
- global understanding (tolerance of ambiguity)
- risk-taking
- word-symbol associations
- recognizing cognates
- using observation skills
- hypothesizing
- analysing

- using inductive reasoning
- using deductive reasoning
- self-correction
- using circumlocution (gestures or other known words) to sustain communication
- identifying key words
- writing a passage based on a model
- guessing
- giving an opinion and supporting argument
- solving problems
- asking questions
- evaluating one's own work
- editing one's own work
- following instructions.

To make a communicative test, decide which learning strategy will be incorporated into the test/activity and identify a task in which the strategy will be used. For example, the learning strategy might be word-symbol associations; the task, problem-solving; and, the context, a calendar. The test question may be: "Given the following calendar of events, on which date might it be best to hold a party?"

12. How Can Teachers Double-Check to See How Appropriate a Test Is?

Once composed, a test should be revised and edited, taking into consideration the content covered in the course and the learners themselves. Use the following checklist to review a test.

Does the test:

- contain an introduction to establish the context?
- provide clear instructions to the test taker?
- reflect the purpose of the test?
- assess the objectives/expectations?
- relate to the students' world knowledge?
- relate to the field of experience explored?
- reflect natural and authentic real-life context(s)?
- reflect Native culture in a non-stereotypical manner?
- test the linguistic knowledge presented in class?
- cater to the cognitive level of students?
- challenge the students?
- encourage the use of strategies?

Does the test help learners to:

- contribute their own linguistic and personal knowledge?
- use different kinds of thinking skills?
- see progress in their learning?
- be creative with their linguistic knowledge?

13. What Are Some Typical Kinds of Test Questions?

The following sample test questions are based on communicative competency:

Associations.

Where would you see the following?

Example: film movie theatre

hockey game _____

plane _____

books _____

meal _____

family _____

gold necklace _____

Choose the correct verbs/nouns.

1. Our children (sing, eat, do) their homework each evening.
2. There are (grapes, pencils, knives) in the fridge.
3. I don't have a ticket, so I can't go to the (drugstore, grocery store, theatre).

Which word does not fit?

1. store, restaurant, shopping centre, test
2. breakfast, lunch, snack, homework
3. mother, friend, father, sister

Questions about the dialogue.

1. Who said: "_____"?
2. Where is _____?
3. What does _____ want?

Name the illustrations.

Make as many sentences as you can that begin with:

1. I love to _____.
2. I hate _____.
3. I eat _____.
4. My teacher is _____.
5. In our school there is/are _____.

Answer the following questions about yourself:

1. How old are you?
2. Where do you do your homework?
3. Do you like sports?
4. Where do you live?
5. Do you have a bike? What kind?
6. When is your birthday?
7. How many people are there in your family? Name your brothers/sisters.

Match the related words.

List A	List B
baseball	school
water	playground
children	pow-wow
West Edmonton Mall	Edmonton
hand games	swimming pool
principal	sport

Draw pictures of four places where we see numbers.

Possible answers: speed limit, scores, highway numbers, weights, prices, dates . . .

Answer questions based on the following information:

			MARCH			
Sunday 7	Monday 8	Tuesday 9	Wednesday 10	Thursday 11	Friday 12	Saturday 13
hockey game	math test	work at gas station	English test	basketball practice	party at Jim's	babysit

1. What day is the math test?
2. When is the basketball practice?
3. What will you do on Thursday?
4. When is the party? Where?

14. What Are Achievement Tests?

Achievement tests, usually administered at year end, are broader in scope than regular tests. They are based on a large portion of a curriculum and are used to determine overall

ability. They may also be criterion-referenced. Just as they are used in reading, mathematics and other subject areas, achievement tests may also be developed for Native language programs.

15. What Is Program Evaluation?

Program evaluation should be conducted in cooperation with the community, parents, elders, teachers, school administrators and students. Important questions are:

- whether the students are becoming proficient in the Native language
- whether the program is influencing the community positively
- whether there is enough communication among the teacher, school and community
- whether there is enough parental and community participation in the program
- whether the program is achieving certain goals set by the community.

There are many ways of obtaining input from community members. Daytime home visits have proved useful in getting some of the students' and parents' ideas. Attendance at Parent Advisory Committee meetings is another source of feedback. The teacher of a community-based curriculum must play the roles of liaison/counsellor/aide/assistant.

The following guiding questions may be posed to parents:

- Are you aware of the Native language program in the school?
- How do you feel about it?
- Any suggestions for other activities?
- Do you consider the Native language important?
- Do you feel that your child is getting anything out of the program?
- Is your child trying to use the language at home?
- Do you as a parent try to reinforce the language at home?

A sample questionnaire for interviewing stakeholders is provided in Appendix B.

16. What Is Involved in Evaluating the Product and the Process?

These and other "products" of a Native language program could be used for evaluation purposes:

- a log of responses to stories read
- selected pages from some student writing
- audiotapes of a conversation
- audiotapes of an oral reading
- retelling of an event, a story
- students' self-assessments
- interest inventories.

The "process" is students' development in literacy, writing, vocabulary, grammar acquisition and so on. These practical demonstrations of a student's ability could be used for evaluation purposes:

- a checklist on oral communication
- a checklist on written communication
- completion of cloze tests
- completion of predictive tests
- responding to written directions, completing tasks involved in a report, etc.
- anecdotal records and observations by the teacher.

We have most experience with quantitative testing. Yet, it is the qualitative assessment techniques that have yielded the greatest results in understanding how we think and learn.

17. What Is Affective Assessment?

The following affective taxonomy adapted from the work of Valette and Disick describes various ways to assess the students' enjoyment of the cultural program.

A. Receptivity

Are the students open to learning about the Native language and culture?

Awareness. Are the students aware that languages and cultures other than their own exist?

Attentiveness. Do the students attend to information about the Native language and culture? Do they pay attention to the careful preparation of assignments?

B. Responsiveness

Do the students respond positively to learning the Native language and culture?

Tolerance. Are the students tolerant of the differences in expression between their mother tongue and their Native language and culture? Do they reject or make fun of the Native language or culture?

Interest and Enjoyment. Do the students enjoy the activities used in learning the Native language? Do they feel satisfied by participating in class?

C. Appreciation

On their own, do the students value the Native language and culture? (This cannot be based on parental pressure.)

Valuing. Do the students see learning the Native language and culture as valuable?

Involvement. Do the students voluntarily participate in activities designed to learn the language and culture, at least occasionally?

D. Internalization

Have the students formed their own ideas and values based on Native language learning?

Conceptualization. Have the students developed a personal system of values about Native language learning that fits into their own personal set of values?

Commitment. Have the students invested time and energy in pursuing further learning of the Native language and culture?

E. Characterization

Have the Native language and culture become an integral part of the students' lives? Can they list activities in these areas that occupy regular time?

Integration. Have values of the Native language and culture been integrated into their own value system?

Leadership. Have the students taken on a major role in promoting Native language learning and instruction?

18. What Are Some Examples of Objectives and How Do Teachers Test Them?

Basic-level listening objectives

- To understand specific details in what is said.
- To extract relevant, specific information from announcements, instructions, requests, interviews, monologues and dialogues.

Testing:
Listening to the following items twice:

- public announcements
- short conversations
- statements and responses in a survival situation.

Basic-level reading objectives

- To understand instructions, signs and notices on public display.
- To extract relevant specific information from such texts as simple brochures, guides, letters and other forms of appropriate, continuous writing, including imaginative writing.

Testing:
- short questions on comprehension of instructions, signs, public notices
- extracts from brochures, guides, letters and similar forms of continuous writing with multiple choice questions.

Basic-level speaking objectives
- To respond to spontaneous questions.
- To ask for information in a way that can be understood by a sympathetic native speaker.

Testing:
- short (5-10 minute) conversation with teacher, tape recorded and analysed later.

Basic-level writing objectives
- To convey basic information.
- To ask for basic information.

Testing:
- write a short message or messages of approximately 30 words each, e.g., a postcard note to a friend
- write a 100-word account in response to a cue or visual.

Higher-level listening objectives
- To identify important themes, including attitudes, ideas, opinions and emotions, as expressed in extended monologues and conversations between two or more people.
- To draw conclusions from, and identify the relationships between, ideas in spoken language, and to understand a variety of registers.

Testing:
- short items, e.g., telephone messages, news items
- longer monologues and dialogues – announcements, interviews, tour guides.

Higher-level reading objectives
- To identify important themes, including attitudes, ideas, opinions and emotions, as expressed.
- To draw conclusions from, and identify the relationships in extended texts.

Testing:
- items testing comprehension of instructions, signs and notices of a more complex nature
- one or more longer passages – articles from magazines, newspapers and letters testing the students' understanding of particular details, including attitudes, ideas and emotions and of the overall meaning of the text(s).

Higher-level speaking objectives

- To elicit and convey information, attitudes and opinions in a wide range of situations.
- To participate in a sustained, unrehearsed conversation, speaking the language sufficiently accurately for a native speaker to understand without difficulty.

Testing:

- two 10-15 minute conversations with the teacher, tape recorded and analysed later
- describe a picture or tell a story (mention all details in the picture to support opinions, use background experience to draw conclusions about the picture).

Higher-level writing objectives

- To respond, in continuous use of the Native language, to a written or visual stimulus.
- To ask for and convey information, attitudes and opinions in a wide range of situations.

Testing:

- students prepare a travel brochure about a location which has cultural relevance
- students prepare and mail a letter asking for information pertaining to something of relevance to them
- students prepare and conduct a survey about an issue
- students write a short story.

PART SIX: PLANNING FOR BETTER LEARNING

1. What Is a Plan?

A plan is a way of making or doing something that has been thought out. A plan provides guidelines for action. As such it is always in limbo. If one part of a plan does not come out as expected, it may be necessary to abandon the rest of the plan. Or it may be necessary to keep the goal or objective in mind but change the activity.

In the Native language program, goals are set or planned by the community. Objectives are set or planned with regard to curriculum guidelines, community input and teachers' professional decisions. Activities are planned by teachers. Teachers select activities or tasks for students to complete based on their own experience and the feedback they get from learners.

Teachers may plan a rough sketch of activities for a whole semester. This is called **long-term planning**. It usually indicates WHEN certain themes are to be introduced, activities conducted, cultural input included, WHICH RESOURCES will be used, and WHAT PHILOSOPHY of teaching and methodology will be adhered to. It indicates what type of assignments students will do, how many marks will be allocated for them and when they are due. Long-term planning allows teachers to see an overview of their program – how activities and themes interrelate, and whether or not activities are balanced.

Teachers will often change their long-term plans from year to year. After a year has passed, a teacher may decide to change the order of the themes presented, to introduce an additional theme, to substitute themes, to move cultural events to new time slots.

Teachers also plan for shorter periods of time – daily lessons and series of lessons. This **short-term planning** usually includes more detail. The teacher must think of what will be done specifically, how long it will take, what materials will be required, how the activity will be conducted, and how students will be assessed.

2. How Do Teachers Begin Daily Lesson Planning?

There are all sorts of ways to plan a lesson. The format one chooses will depend on teaching style and philosophy. The format for daily lesson planning presented in this section is a suggestion only; it should be tailored to suit individual teacher's needs and styles.
In general, every lesson has three basic components: **an introduction, lesson activities and a closing**.

The introduction plays two roles in a lesson:
- ties students' background knowledge to the upcoming activities (i.e., review)
- ties upcoming activities to the previous day's work.

The activities should:
- develop receptive skills (of listening/comprehending and reading)
- provide activities for different learning styles
  - audio learners
  - visual learners
  - tactile learners
  - kinesthetic learners
- develop productive skills (of speaking and writing)
- provide cooperative activities.

Closure of the lesson should:
- tie today's lessons together (through asking a question).

It could also:
- invite students for feedback through oral or written reflection
- initiate an activity to be followed through during or before the next class.

Experienced Native language teachers recommend that each lesson or meeting begin with a prayer and that language games should be part of the daily activities. The prayer should come from an elder. Samples are included in Appendix C.

Lesson Planning Model

1. PREPARATION/MOTIVATION

	Teacher	Students
• Greetings		
- prayer	models/initiates	answer/imitate
- other		
• Daily routine		
- weather	models/teaches	repeat/memorize
- calendar	asks questions	respond
- other		
• Today's objective	informs	listen/ask for clarification
• Review previous lesson	models/questions	imitate/respond
	reminds	initiate

2. EXPERIENCE

	Teacher	Students
• Present new material or new "learning"	directs	listen
• Practice the situation	plans/explains	practice
• Do an activity (game)	monitor	practice

3. REINVESTMENT

	Teacher	Students
• Fit the old into the new	explains	listen
• Try a new situation	designs activity	participate
• Review (game)		

4. CLOSURE

	Teacher	Students
• Greetings	models	respond

5. EVALUATION/ASSESSMENT (after class and/or during future class)

	Teacher	Students
• Reflection (self-evaluation)	develops	write/discuss
• Formative (monitored)		
• Summative		
• Report		

3. How Can Teachers Plan a Well-Rounded Native Language Program?

When the activities that teachers plan allow students to USE language for most of the class time and encourage students to use a variety of FUNCTIONS of language, the program is well-rounded. The following functions, developed by Michael Halliday, are good guidelines.

FUNCTION	DESCRIPTION	EXAMPLE(S)
"I want . . ."	Language is used to satisfy material needs.	- students role-play typical daily activities and label them in the Native language, e.g., "I am washing.", "I am eating."
"Do as I tell you."	Language is used to regulate behaviour.	- TPR commands (see pp. 35-36) - "Simon says" game

"You and me."	Language is used to establish and define social relationships.	- dialogues - role-play - daily interaction
"Here I am."	Language is used to shape one's self and to express one's individuality.	- student responses - student-created skits - responses to activities through art, writing or oral expression
"Tell me why."	Language is used to investigate and learn about things.	- students ask questions about their own wondering
"Let's pretend."	Language is used to create imaginative worlds.	- telling or drawing dreams
"I've got something to tell you."	Language is used to inform, to express propositions, to explain, to describe.	- visits by elders or cultural experts - videos/films about historical or cultural information

4. What Role Do Students' Expectations Play in Planning?

Most students, especially those in a second language class, appreciate a predictable classroom routine. The following sequence of activities has proven useful for Native language teachers in Alberta:

- EXPLAIN the activity
- DEMONSTRATE the activity
- PREPARE and DISTRIBUTE MATERIALS for the activity
- OBSERVE/MONITOR WHILE STUDENTS PRACTICE the activity

Learners will feel confident knowing what teacher expectations are and what the classroom routine will be.

5. What Are Expectations? How Do Teachers Build Expectations into Planning?

The learning expectations for Native language programs are presented in Alberta Education's *Cree Language and Culture 10, 20, 30: Program of Studies* (1992) and *Blackfoot Language and Culture 10, 20, 30: Program of Studies* (1992). The general learner expectations describe, in broad terms, what knowledge, skills and attitudes students should be able to demonstrate as a result of their learning experiences in a Native language and culture program. The specific learner expectations expand on each of the general learner expectations. They are explicit statements about what students are expected to

achieve. The expectations serve as benchmarks to indicate stages in students' development of their language and cultural proficiency.

In addition, a teacher may set some personal expectations for a school year. (For example, to be more conscious of learning styles, or to use more cooperative learning, or to try to use less English in the classroom . . .) Students may also be asked to set personal expectations over a longer period of time. (For example, to arrive on time throughout the semester, or to improve an attendance record, or to try to use only the Native language during classtime . . .) When planning and executing a plan, the teacher should remain conscious of the set expectations.

6. What Is a Task? How Do Teachers Build Tasks into Planning?

A task is an activity or work which has to be done. Every lesson will be made up of many tasks, some lasting a few minutes (e.g., respond to teacher-directed questions) and others of a longer duration (e.g., watch a videotape about a cultural event). The teacher selects the tasks on the basis of goals and objectives of the program, input from students (what motivates and interests them) and ongoing self-assessment (of teaching and lesson planning).

7. What Is Inductive Reasoning? How Do Teachers Build Inductive Reasoning into Planning?

Induction is the ability to detect regularities in events and to generalize from particular instances.

Inductive reasoning is arriving at a general conclusion by considering examples. Inductive reasoning moves from the specifics to the general.

Students who are given opportunities to **discover** language patterns are using inductive reasoning. Beginning language learners need opportunities to think inductively. This process helps them develop fluency (confidence and motivation).

In reflecting on each lesson for a month, the teacher may conclude that students are most motivated when certain activities are conducted or certain patterns of activities occur.

8. What Is Deductive Reasoning? How Do Teachers Build Deductive Reasoning into Planning?

Deduction is the ability to detect what is consistent or inconsistent with one's assumptions. It shows what follows or does not follow from those assumptions.

Deductive reasoning is arriving at a conclusion by considering rules of logic. Deductive reasoning moves from rules, laws or generalizations to their application in specific instances.

Students are being asked to use deductive reasoning when they are given grammar rules to memorize, follow or apply to worksheets or conversation. As students become more comfortable with the language, they may benefit from some deductive activities.

If teachers are told that each lesson should include playing games as a way of motivating students, then the teacher may include games in each lesson. If teachers do not do so, others might conclude that they do not believe in the rule, are being stubborn or do not use deductive reasoning.

9. How Will Teachers Know if the Students Are Learning?

One way of identifying whether students are learning is to listen for their **use of the Native language** in the classroom. Another is to sense **their interest and motivation**.

When teachers hear students use the Native language (the PRODUCT of instruction) they should listen for communicative competency, that is, FLUENCY, or how willing the students are to try to use the language. Teachers should listen for the ACCURACY of the product, or the "correctness" of the pronunciation and grammar, and social appropriateness.

Sensing the students' motivation and participation (the PROCESS of instruction) involves looking for attempts to use the language independently and for adherence to classroom rules and procedures. Students' responses about what activities they liked/did not like can also provide information about their attitudes.

In planning a task, such as "Students will play a game," the teacher should consider both the PRODUCT and the PROCESS.

PRODUCT
- who wins
- who finishes first
- accuracy of language used
- volume of work done
- luck

PROCESS
- following the rules
- using the language as much as possible
- interacting with others
- having materials ready
- showing interest in the activity
- demontrating competitive and cooperative spirit
- taking turns
- not dominating

10. How Are Evaluation and Planning Related?

Students, teachers and activities should be evaluated on the basis of what they have experienced, been exposed to and practiced, that is, what is in the lesson plans. However, we mustn't forget the "teachable moment" or trusting teachers' instincts. Sometimes teachers have an excellent lesson plan prepared and are motivated to execute it when the students enter the classroom on a dreary day and don't seem to respond to the activity. It is best to drop the plan and respond to the learners in such a situation. The plan and activity can always be used another day.

In a "teachable moment," students ask genuine questions and are unusually interested in a discussion. The teacher senses how much the students are learning and goes with the mood, whether or not it was "planned."

Plans can and should be altered on the basis of students' behaviour in class, at cultural events or when interacting with native speakers.

When lessons go according to plan, the plan should include ways of assessing both the process and the product. If students are making up a language game in the Native language, the following questions might shape the assessment:

PRODUCT

Language

- Is the game good for language learning?
- Is the language accurate?
- Does the game involve listening, reading writing, speaking?
- Is the game relevant?
- Is there cultural content?
- Is there accurate content?

PROCESS

- Does everyone participate?
- Is there equal input from all group members?
- Were there arguments? Were they resolved?
- Do students use the language to plan?
- Is the group excited about the game they are making up?

Packaging

- Is the game neat?
- Is it easy to play?
- Is it interesting?
- Is it aesthetically pleasing?

Students could be asked to reflect in writing on how much they learned during the activity and on how well they think that they met the above criteria.

11. How Might Teachers Plan for a Unit of Activities?

A unit consists of a series of lessons, usually covering two to eight weeks of instruction.

Each unit should be developmental, build on previously learned vocabulary and phrases, utilizing methods that were previously introduced, and introducing new vocabulary and phrases and new teaching techniques.

Each unit should:

- identify the **linguistic** content of a theme
- identify the **cultural** content of a theme
- identify activities that **do not require the use of English**
- be **balanced** in terms of
  - language strands (listening, speaking, reading and writing)
  - learning styles (activities for audio, visual, kinesthetic and tactile learners)
  - functions of language
  - individual, pair, small group and whole class activities
  - self-assessment, peer evaluation, teacher assessment and teacher evaluation
- identify activities that **introduce** new vocabulary, phrases, idioms
- identify activities to **review** vocabulary and phrases from ALL of the previous units
- identify activities to **practice** newly presented vocabulary and phrases
- identify activities to **motivate** students
- identify activities that allow **students to do most of the talking**
- provide for a **routine of activities** (e.g., a prayer at the beginning of every class, role-playing activities every Friday, students complete a rating scale once a month . . .)

Figure 8 is a sample unit plan.

Figure 8. Sample Unit Plan

This form can be used to make up a unit plan. List the activities you wish to do on a regular basis across the top. List the number of lessons along the side. Then note which days you will do which activities. Note that some activities may be done EVERY DAY, others every second day and others only once during the unit.

LEVEL/GRADE: _____ LENGTH: _____							THEME: _____			
Lesson	Prayer	Games	Dialog.	Legend	Rhyth. Poems	Gramm.	Audio-visual	Read. Activ.	Poem	Guest Speaker
1										
2										
3										
4										
5										
6										
7										
8										
9										
10										
11										
12										
13										
14										
15	UNIT TEST									

12. Is a Thematic Approach Effective for a Native Language Classroom?

A thematic approach works well for teaching second languages IF the teacher builds in a constant review of previously covered themes. Otherwise, there is a tendency to forget quickly the terminology from earlier thematic units.

Imagine teaching short units on the following themes: colours, food, transportation, clothing, and consider a one-week theme on each. This will take four weeks. It is possible that the content taught during the first week will not be remembered by the last week; it is also likely that the content taught during these four weeks may not be recalled six months later.

This planning model suggests that all of the content introduced in the first week CAN be learned in one week and WILL be remembered:

THEME / TIME	A	B	C	D
Week 1	*			
Week 2		*		
Week 3			*	
Week 4				*

However, the four themes could be covered in four weeks by doing a bit of each theme each week and gradually building on previously learned phrases. This approach is depicted in the following figure:

THEME / TIME	A	B	C	D
Week 1	*	*	*	*
Week 2	*	*	*	*
Week 3	*	*	*	*
Week 4	*	*	*	*

This model assumes that TIME is important in the learning and storage of content/ vocabulary knowledge.

13. Should Plans Be Adapted to Reflect Differences?

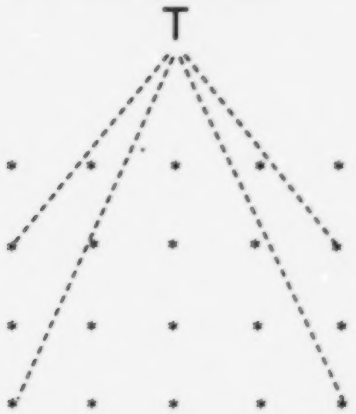
Planning is an essential part of effective teaching. However, changing situations such as mood of the class, school events, rate at which students are acquiring information, needs of select individuals in the group, etc. may dictate that a plan be altered.

When teaching two groups of students at the same grade level it is important to realize that different strategies or activities may be required by each class, that pacing and flow may vary, and that some events may be more appropriate to one group than to another. In short, it is necessary to adapt one's plans to reflect the differences of individuals within one class and of whole groups of students.

PART SEVEN: OTHER ISSUES

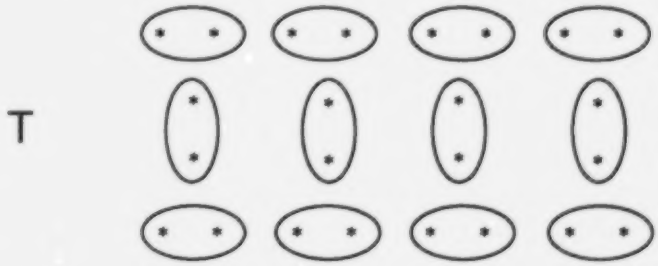
1. How Do Teachers Organize a Classroom to Maximize Student Interaction?

In whole class activities, it is important that all students can see the teacher.

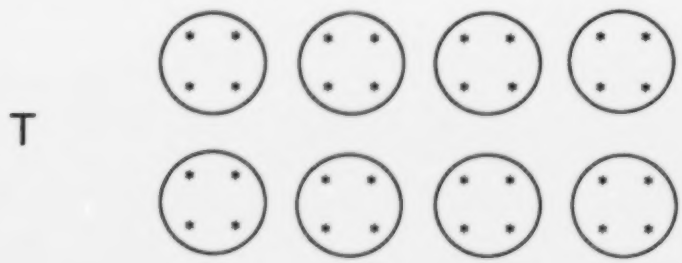


When students are working at individual activities, they require private space.

When students are engaged in paired activities, they want to be in pairs, but also have some privacy as a pair.



When students are working in small groups, they want to have room to move in their small groups, but also have some privacy as a group.



The spacing in all of these classroom arrangements should allow the teacher to circulate freely among the students, as necessary.

2. How Can Discipline Be Handled?

Each discipline case tends to be unique. However, the best approach to discipline involves giving students responsibility for their actions. It is their responsibility to listen and participate in class. If they do not want to participate or attend, options must be made available to them.

Some discipline problems may be a function of the type of activities offered in the classroom. Varying the activities and providing more visuals or kinesthetic activities may help to interest or motivate these students. Most people do not want to be a problem. Their behaviour simply reflects their level of interest or some difficulty they are coping with.

Discipline is sometimes called IMPROVING BEHAVIOUR. Before students can improve their behaviour, they must:

- first understand why the behaviour is wrong
- then examine situations which invoke this behaviour
- finally make a plan to correct the behaviour
- stick to the plan and monitor it through ongoing feedback.

Pushing and shoving

A. Why is it wrong?
   - It is against the rules to bother others.
   - Someone can get hurt.
   - It would be difficult to study or learn if you were worrying about being hit by someone.

B. Situations/reasons causing undesired behaviour
   - teasing
   - losing temper

- showing off
- seeking attention
- getting back at someone
- acting silly.

C. Correcting undesired behaviour
- "Before I lose my temper I will count from one to . . ."
- Everyone wants to be liked. But it's hard to like someone who pushes you all the time.

Talking disruptively

A. Why is it wrong?
- It is hard to listen to more than one person at a time.
- When teachers are talking, they do not want the other students distracted.
- Almost everyone gets his work done when the class is paying attention.
- Talking disturbs those who want to concentrate.

B. Situations/reasons causing undesired behaviour
- inconsiderateness of speaker
- selfishness
- arguments
- borrowing things
- being bored.

C. Correcting undesired behaviour
- It is hard to respect someone who is annoying.
- "What I did is wrong."
- "I will try not to be rude."
- "I will wait until breaktime to tell my friends something that does not relate to the lesson."

Not paying attention

A. Why is it wrong?
- If you are not paying attention, you are not learning.
- Most people consider it disrespectful.
- You upset people.

B. Situations/reasons causing undesired behaviour
- boredom
- not trying hard to become interested in what is being taught
- not understanding what is being taught
- no control over ability to listen.

C. Correcting undesired behaviour
- "I will ask for assistance if I do not understand."
- "I will listen because I want to learn and improve my abilities."

Getting out of your seat

A. Why is it wrong?
- Nothing would be accomplished if everyone was somewhere they shouldn't be.
- Your desk is your work place. How would you get your work done?

B. Situations/reasons causing undesired behaviour
- wanting to waste time
- more fun to visit than to work
- wanting to socialize
- boredom.

C. Correcting undesired behaviour
- "I need to change my attitude toward getting work done."
- "I need to be productive instead of wasting time."
- "I need to make good use of my time."

Being disrespectful

A. Why is it wrong?
- Refusing to obey or talking back to the teacher is rude.
- Disrespect shows lack of cooperation.
- Not much learning would occur if students were disrespectful to the teacher/each other.
- No one wants to go to a school where people do not respect each other.

B. Situations/reasons causing undesired behaviour
- showing off to friends by giving "smart comments" to teacher
- trying to impress everyone by being tough
- wanting things to be done their own way
- bad attitude
- uncooperative attitude.

C. Correcting undesired behaviour
- Disrespect communicates negative image to others; therefore, learn to cooperate.
- Be courteous.
- Develop positive relations with teacher and other students.
- Work on good attitudes in order to be respected.

Coming to class unprepared

A. Why is it wrong?
- Chances for learning are reduced.
- You are inconveniencing others.
- You are showing irresponsibility.

B. Situations/reasons causing undesired behaviour
- inability to organize time
- not seeking help when needed
- inability to understand task given
- lack of interest
- laziness
- not trying.

C. Correcting undesired behaviour
- Be cooperative.
- Try to motivate yourself to learn.
- Organize your time and schedule.

Bothering others

A. Why is it wrong?
- Everyone has the right to be left alone. Bothering someone interferes with his/her rights.
- Annoying others is not fair.
- It is hard to work when you are bothered or interrupted by someone's talking or noise.

B. Situations/reasons causing undesired behaviour
- boredom
- jealousy
- seeking attention
- being silly.

C. Correcting undesired behaviour
- Try not to be a nuisance in order to learn more.
- Have a purpose.
- Respect others' rights.

Making fun of others (RIDICULE is a form of social control in Native cultures.)

A. Why is it wrong?
- No one likes to be insulted.
- It is wrong to do or say something to make someone feel bad intentionally.

- It's a put-down, not a "put-up."
- No one likes to feel left out or hurt.
- You upset people.

B. Situations/reasons causing undesired behaviour
- jealousy
- low self-esteem
- selfishness
- rudeness
- immaturity
- feeling threatened (that others will look better than us).

C. Correcting undesired behaviour
- Use humour instead.
- Make friends instead of enemies.

Not cooperating

A. Why is it wrong?
- Teachers cannot teach and students cannot learn.
- Little is accomplished without cooperation.
- It makes others miserable.
- It is unfair to others who are working hard.

B. Situations/reasons causing undesired behaviour
- showing off
- seeking attention
- inability to share with others
- wanting to do only what you want
- immaturity
- stubbornness
- negative attitude.

C. Correcting undesired behaviour
- Break the bad habit of not being able to share with others.
- Start being a part of a team.
- Try sharing ideas productively.

Chewing gum

A. Why is it wrong?
- It annoys others around you.
- You can't practice another language with gum in your mouth.

- The gum could stick to floors, desks or clothes and inconvenience others.
- The noise from gum wrappers is distracting.
- Gum is not healthy.

B. Situations/reasons causing undesired behaviour
   - wanting to share with friends

C. Correcting undesired behaviour
   - Bring nutritious food for snacks.
   - Share food only at recess or break time.

Other behavioural concerns:
- swearing
- arriving late
- wasting time
- making a mess
- not getting along with others
- name-calling
- frequent washroom breaks
- complaining.

RESPONSIBILITY ACTION PLAN:
THINK ABOUT THE **WAY YOU ACTED**

1. Why is pushing against school rules?
2. Why did you push _____?
3. Write four reasons why you push/shove others.
4. What special reason did you have for pushing _____ today?
5. What were you doing that got you into trouble?
6. Will you get into trouble again for pushing/shoving?
7. Write your plan/goal for not pushing again. E.g., "Before I lose my temper I will count from one to ten."

Anecdotal Records

Teachers may find it useful to keep track of students who tend to have regular difficulties in living by the classroom rules. Figure 9 is a form designed to help teachers see the pattern of misbehaviour and the student's responses to each incident. Ultimately, this type of record should be seen as a way of helping the student be more responsible.

Figure 9. Anecdotal Records of Undesirable Behaviour

NAME: _____

LEVEL/GRADE/CLASS: _____

TEACHER: _____

DATE	RULE BROKEN	RESPONSE COMPLETED (Y/N)

Rewarding Positive Behaviour

Figure 10 is a suggested checklist for keeping track of positive behaviour.

Figure 10. Positive Behaviour Checklist

CLASS RECORDKEEPING LOG: INCENTIVES FOR BEHAVIOUR IMPROVEMENT						
CLASS: _____						
LEVEL/GRADE: _____						
TEACHER: _____						
POINTS FOR . . .	**DATE**	**DATE**	**DATE**	**DATE**	**DATE**	**DATE**
Arriving on time						
Appropriate classroom behaviour						
Completed homework						
Showing cooperation						
Using Native language						

Each student gets two points for adhering to the rules during each class. The class with the highest number of points over a given time period, say one month, gets treated to a prize of their choice. **This approach draws attention to the positive accomplishments of the class as a whole**

Possible rewards:

- trips
- crafts
- plaques
- performance – presenting something at assembly
- supper
- milkshakes
- certificates
- extracurricular sporting activities
- drawing time
- videos
- games
- prizes

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

SAMPLE ANNUAL LETTER TO CHIEF AND COUNCIL OR OTHER COMMUNITY LEADERS

Dear _____:

I would like to inform you about the Cree/Blackfoot 10 program offered in _____ _____ School. This program is in its _____ year of operation. _____ students are enrolled. (This compares to _____ students last year.) The goals of this program are: _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

I plan to distribute several newsletters during the year to keep you informed of events in our program. My students and I will appreciate any support you can give us in the coming year.

Sincerely,

_____
Teacher

APPENDIX B

SAMPLE SURVEY OF COMMUNITY

1. What do you think of the Native Language Program that is offered in your child's school?

   _____

   _____

2. Do you think it helps the children? (Explain.)

   _____

   _____

3. Does it cause any problems for the children? (Explain.)

   _____

   _____

4. Do you think Cree (Blackfoot) culture and language are important? Why?

   _____

   _____

5. How interested is your child in learning the Native language?

   _____

   _____

6. Would you like to see more community members involved in the program? How?

   _____

   _____

7. Is your child or grandchild enrolled in the Native Language Program?

   _____

   _____

APPENDIX C

PRAYERS

PROTOCOL: The prayer should come from an elder as a blessing for the program.

Blackfoot Prayer:

Ayo	Oh
Apistotoki	Creator,
Ispomokinaan	help us
Nahkayistsisinaan	to listen,
Nahkaykimotsisinaan	to love one another,
Nahkayikakimahsinaan	to try hard,
Nahkokamotohsinaan	to be honest,
Nahkawatoyitatsinaan	to have faith.
Ohtokinaan Apistotoki	Hear us, Creator.
Kimiskokosiks	Be kind to your Children,
Iksikimatapsiya	for they are in need.

Cree Prayer:

Nohtawinan saweminan anohc kakisikak.	Our Father, bless us this day
Ayisk ki minan pimatsowin	Because you gave us life.
Saweminan ota kamamawih ayayahk	Bless us as we gather here.
Minan maskwatsowin mina iyinisowin	Give us strength and humanity.
Minan asay mina ka paksimohk	Give us another dawn and sunset.
Kinanaskomtinan pitane ekosi tehikihk.	We thank you. So be it.
Ay-ay.	Amen.

APPENDIX D

CRITERIA FOR SKILL DEVELOPMENT – CHECKLISTS

Listening Checklist

1. listens to the sounds of the language (greetings, survival phrases)
2. discriminates between sounds in isolation and in context
3. identifies individual sounds in isolation and in context
4. understands and responds to basic sentence patterns, directions, questions, requests
5. recognizes and understands concrete vocabulary of the classroom, school, community
6. shows awareness of the rhythm of language by clapping beats; takes part in contextual, spontaneous listening
7. takes part in role-playing; illustrates words and gestures
8. identifies a missing word or line
9. substitutes words in patterns so that comprehension and vocabulary can develop simultaneously by analogy
10. listens to tapes, radio, films, videos, guest speakers

Speaking Checklist

1. imitates basic sentence patterns
2. responds to greetings, questions (date, time, weather . . .)
3. asks questions relating to needs; imitates sounds produced by teacher; discriminates sounds
4. verbally labels objects, actions, pictures, charts, etc.
5. counts (objects, days of week, students, syllables)
6. understands and uses words for concepts that relate to his or her immediate environment
7. expresses concepts orally in meaningful contexts; uses appropriate stress and intonation, uses concrete vocabulary for identifying, classifying, categorizing; understands new vocabulary and uses it for reclassifying, restructuring and recategorizing what is known in mother tongue
8. retells a personal experience and later a short story; uses language suitable to purpose to make a request, state a fact, accept an invitation, ask a question, etc.
9. describes a picture
10. uses the skills of reporting, narrating, interpreting; reproduces main ideas and supporting details in own words
11. interprets material through contrasting and comparing new environment to Native culture; uses language freely to interact in any situation

Reading Checklist

1. reads labels on concrete objects in classroom
2. recognizes visual presentations of daily expressions by flash cards, charts, blackboard
3. recognizes the alphabet (upper and lower cases); relates phonemes to graphemes; identifies and discriminates vowels and consonants; decodes words
4. reads information relating to self (My name is . . . My address is . . .)
5. reads own printing or cursive writing; reads aloud using correct stress; reads with understanding words in context
6. reads sentences fluently; reads from a large chart own account of a shared experience (field trip, visit, classroom event); reads passages fluently; reads own and others' experience stories
7. reads dialogues, short stories, plays
8. interprets and comprehends passages, film strips, television shows, etc.
9. reads and appreciates different forms of writing – stories, poems, plays, documentaries, explanations

Writing Checklist

1. traces, draws lines, shapes, etc. in correct direction
2. draws freehand
3. traces and/or copies letters, words; writes own name
4. copies names of concrete objects
5. copies daily expressions
6. labels objects and pictures in classroom
7. takes simple dictation; writes out information relating to self by following patterns (My name is . . . My address is . . . My phone number is . . .); answers questions about own account of a shared experience; models; writes questions about a passage
8. writes a journal using controlled model
9. writes simple sentences about a given picture or photo
10. writes a reply to a letter; writes an outline of an experience, story, picture, video, oral presentation; takes notes for different purposes
11. writes a short paragraph, letter, experience, story, rhyme; writes a dialogue, report, experiment, essay; proofreads to improve word choice, sentence structure, organization

CHECKING MY PARAGRAPH

_____ 1. My paragraph has a title.
_____ 2. The title is centred.
_____ 3. The capitalization of the paragraph is correct.
_____ 4. There is a space between the title and the first sentence.
_____ 5. The first sentence is indented.
_____ 6. Each line begins at the (left/right/top) margin.
_____ 7. There is a margin on the other side.

_____ 8. Each new sentence begins with a capital letter.
_____ 9. My full name is on the paper.
_____ 10. Each sentence ends with appropriate punctuation.

Cultural Integration Checklist

1. introduces self and gives greeting in Native language
2. uses different greetings and farewells, and uses gestures to accompany them
3. teaches other students greetings/farewells; writes other students' names
4. interacts with visitors to the classroom, school personnel; compares calendars, shares food
5. shares folktales and songs
6. shares family life activities through photos
7. shares universal commonalities such as telling time, domestic animals, calendar, seasons
8. shares national art/customs
9. total integration of two cultures – cross-cultural understanding

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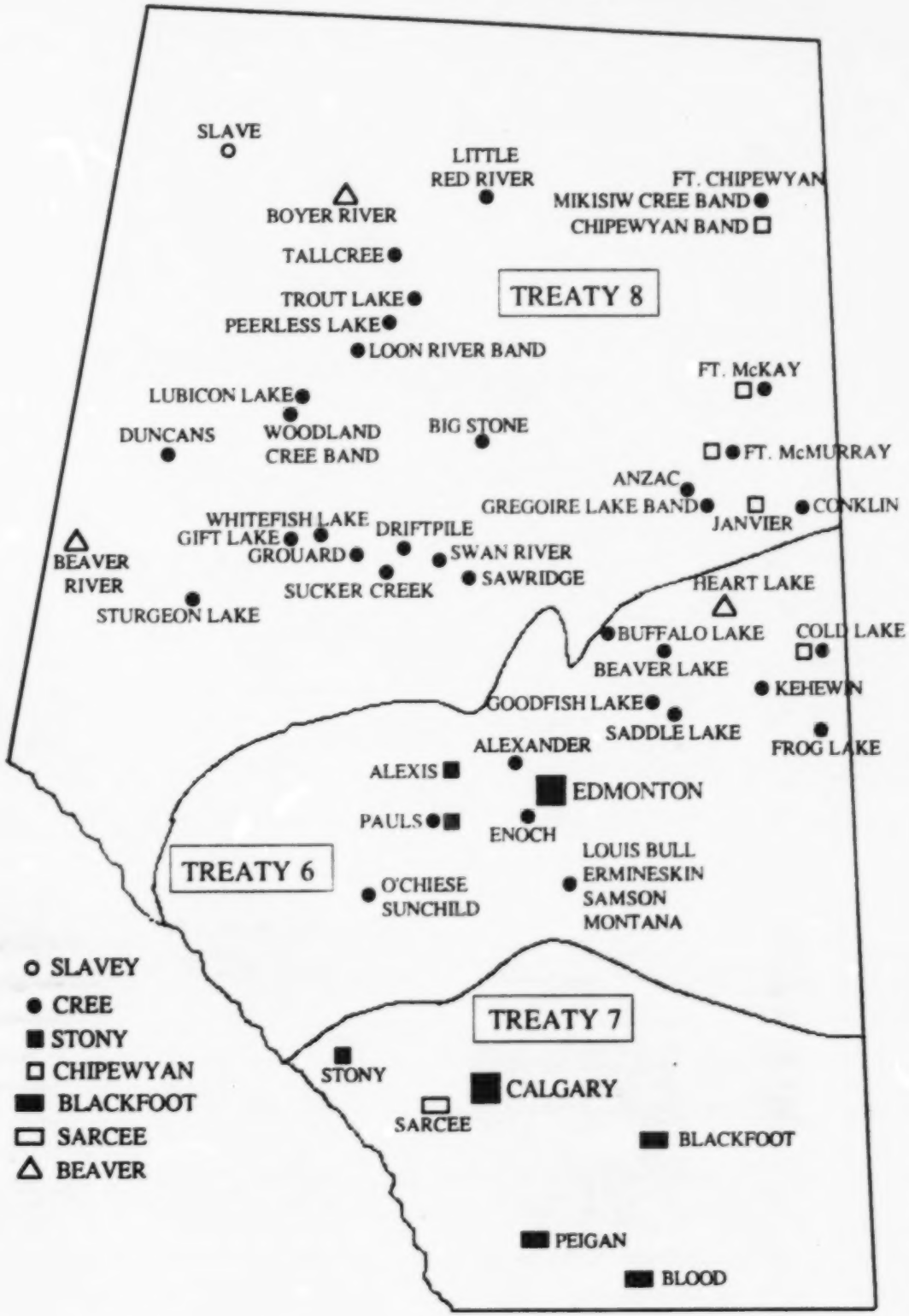

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